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LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 16, 1858.

## LITERATURE

*The Master-BUILDER'S Plan; or, the Principles of Organic Architecture, as indicated in the Typical Forms of Animals.* By George Ogilvie, M.D. (Longman & Co.)

The zoologist is no longer a mere collector and preserver of specimens. It is no longer his highest achievement to disembowel a crocodile, stuff a pheasant, or pin down a beetle and a butterfly. He must now philosophize as well as preserve,—he must anatomize as well as set up his specimen in a glass case,—or he will be left behind in the march of science, and regarded as a workman rather than as a sage. Nor must he be satisfied with merely learning the anatomical construction of each specimen or species. Still further, he must compare and contrast with other individuals and species, and thus acquire a continually-expanding knowledge of comparative anatomy. Ascending still higher, he will enter the region of what has been called "transcendental anatomy"; and here the philosophical principles of form and structure will begin to dawn upon him, and, in time, a vast and mysterious field of observation will be discerned, over which the most gifted minds and the most disciplined intellects may range at will and almost without boundary.

Here, however, is a newly-discovered territory—a kind of new Columbian gold-field—towards which the choice spirits of the age are hastening, each one anxious to be the discoverer of the rich auriferous deposits so long neglected. That great principle—the Unity of Organization, or the unity of plan upon which animals are organized—was slow of discovery, and equally slow of reception. Oken's first work on the subject was published in 1807,—and it is only within the last few years that the subject has been systematically treated (among ourselves), by Owen in the department of vertebrate animals, and by Huxley, Dana, Darwin, Forbes, and others, in the lower departments of animal life. When Oken announced that the head was a second trunk, and consequently had vertebral as well as limbs, he was thought to have gone, in all senses, wrong in the head. Cuvier ridiculed the notion of "finding again in the head all the parts of the trunk,"—but, although Oken was mad enough on other points, there was method in this particular madness. Subsequently, Prof. Owen demonstrated the segmental construction of the skull, and, in 1848, published his great contribution to this branch of science, 'On the Archetype and Homologies of the Vertebrate Skeleton.' This was followed, in 1849, by a somewhat similar publication, 'On the Nature of Limbs,' in which, although there are many things hard to be understood by the general reader, there are also many things new, profound, and resulting from the exercise of a signal faculty of generalization. But, while Prof. Owen's higher powers are brought into play only in these his technical treatises, he has descended to publish a concise summary of his views in a popular form, in Orr's "Circle of the Sciences,"—a little book both accurate and intelligible, and almost rendering any other popular attempt in the same direction superfluous. He confines himself, however, principally to the Vertebrates, standing as it were on the summit of the vital system; while others labour not less diligently, and not less worthily, in lower grades and amongst minor forms.

Although much has been discovered and described with the view of illustrating special adaptation to particular ends,—while the science happily named Teleology has been for long

years constantly receiving accessions of example and confirmation,—and gathering them from all departments of animate nature,—other equally important, and indeed far grander and more comprehensive lines of thought, have been known to scientific men under the names of Homology (chiefly in relation to the vertebrate skeleton) and Typology, and which might well be comprehended under the all-including title of Cosmology. These have, however, been so far neglected as to allow them to be regarded as new sciences or new departments of the philosophy of natural history. Yet what more partial, contracted, and unworthy view of the Omnipotent Designer could be entertained than that which should consider him as adapting and perfecting the individual for its individual functions, apart from a great, pervading, all-subordinating plan? Now, fortunately, we are brought to see, even though it be "through a glass, darkly," for the present, that, throughout the whole realms of organized life, there is an archetypal order and unity of composition which demonstrates that, though Creation may be "a mighty maze," it is assuredly "not without a plan." Glance over the various animal kingdoms, and everywhere there are plan and order. Take this clue with you and you tread the labyrinth with facility. There is order in form, in number, in time, in colour. We can follow out the same organ in different animals under every variety of form and function, and so record *homologues*. We can find corresponding parts serially repeated in the same animal (like our own fingers and toes, and the fore and hind limbs of animals generally), and class them as *homotypes*. We discern that heaven's first law, order, is also earth's first law. The whole living organized mass of beings will in time be made, at the word of the skilled naturalist, to fall into true and typical rank and line, as surely and perfectly as a multitude of scattered soldiers can be marshalled into military array at the word of their general. It is admitted that accidental diversities and frequent obscurities mask much of this pervading unity from our eyes, and occasionally we lose the clue; but it will be recovered. Minuter and more patient examination, higher generalization, and fuller discovery, will unquestionably bring to light the lost leading lines. There are assuredly orders in natural as well as in artificial architecture. As in the latter we have Corinthian, Ionic, and Doric, so in the former we have distinctive and prevalent types and models. As in any large city, confused, intertwined, and circuitous as its streets and lanes may appear to a first visitor, yet to the long resident therein, masonic design and geometrical plan are clearly visible; and a true map of the city displays design and order, square and crescent, rectangular disposition of streets and lanes, and general conformity of hall and mansion.

That there has always been a series of typical forms upon which animals have been constructed, is manifested to us by the remains of organized beings embedded in the rocks and strata under our feet. Extinct forms of life in fossils are no exception to this principle, but strong confirmations of it. The paleontologist proceeds upon it in restoring his fossilized animal from its fragments. He sees that, whether plant or fish or mammal, it was constructed upon a typical idea,—that there were corresponding parts in the genus or the species,—that there were *homotypes* in the animal before him; and if some parts be wanting he supplies them upon the principles of homology. There is, too, not only plan in the individuals, but also progressive plan in the series. We have archetypal idea, organic order, typical

conformation in the fossils beneath our feet, and in the living creatures growing and breathing around us on all sides. There is, then, not only a harmony in the spheres, but also in the very stones of the quarry, and among the beasts of the field, the fishes of the sea, and the birds of the air. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the importance of these principles. They are as fundamental in zoology as the circulation of the blood in physiology. They contribute to make zoology and physiology inductive sciences, and to exalt them above the merely descriptive. They explain difficulties, and reveal purposes before undecipherable. They confront and discomfit atheism and infidelity. They bring us into the very ante-chamber of Deity. They intimate to us the ideas of the Divine mind. The more generally intelligible, therefore, they can be rendered, the more refined and reverential will the study of them become, and the greater will be the number of students. It is not to be supposed that they can ever be wholly divested of technicalities, or made tempting reading to novel-spoilt readers. They are necessarily in a great degree abstract, and they necessitate the exercise of thought and reflection. In tracing them out we have to free ourselves from the familiarity of outward forms, and in order to get at the radical type, we must dismember the animal, and perform the same operation in anatomy as the philologist performs in his study of words,—namely, strip off the prefixes and terminations of the word before him, until he arrives at the crude form, or root, that runs through a hundred other words; often, indeed, disguised, sometimes almost wholly obscured, yet at last to be laid bare by the grammatical scalpel, and identified. Then the more complex forms of life will be found to be only developments of rudimentary parts existing elsewhere in simplicity. The essentials of the naked type thus ascertained will be found to be perpetual, nor are they violated even when they seem to be incompatible with the habits of particular animals. A comparatively slight modification of some parts of the organization will be seen to render unnecessary any departure from the persistent type. The individuals die, but the genus and species survive. A constant flux and reflux of typical lives give tides of vitality to the earth. Plato entertained, it may be, some dim notions of these truths in his doctrine of Ideas or Types. But what was dim and doubtful to him is manifest and marked to us. The model forms of organic existence are daily being defined more clearly to us by several indefatigable inquirers at home and abroad; by men who reject nothing animate as purposeless or as merely superfluous; and who, while they think independently, and therefore sometimes differ, yet agree so far as to corroborate the leading principles of this department of study.

Books exclusively devoted to its elucidation are few (at least, in England), and must continue to be few while the most accomplished men are rather learners than teachers, rather watchful pursuers of a dim and shadowy outline than painters of a clearly seen and perfect picture. Hence, it is chiefly in articles in Cyclopedias and Dictionaries of Science, in papers read to learned Societies, in memoirs and reports of lectures, and in scientific periodicals, that we find recorded the views and experiments of the various physiologists and zoologists who addict themselves to these pursuits. In such a stage we are not likely to be overburdened with books for the multitude upon subjects of which, at present, the multitude have not even learned the value or the purpose. A man who, like the author of the 'Vestiges of Creation,'

should overlay his facts with fancy, and select such as suit his theory, rejecting the obstinate and perverse opponents of it, might get up a very enticing and novelistic kind of book. The only misfortune would be, that where it should inform it might mislead. But if he would confine himself rigidly to observed and faithfully recorded particulars, and reason and write only inductively, his book would be anything rather than dreamy. We call to mind only one generally readable book besides the one before us, viz., M'Cosh and Dickie's 'Typical Forms and Special Ends in Creation.' This we noticed at the time of its first appearance. It is now in a second edition, and is a really valuable work, yet far from elementary. Though professedly prepared for general readers, it demands patience and persevering study.

Dr. Ogilvie's book is much smaller, and less ambitious than the one just named. It aims at general acceptance. The author's great object is, as he says, "not to advance new truths, but rather to gain additional currency for such as have a fair claim to be already established, and, in particular, to convey an idea of the laws of organization to those who, without making natural history a special object of study, may wish to have a right comprehension of its general scope." In nine moderately long chapters he treats perspicuously of the various plans on which animals are formed in general; in particular of the Vertebrate type and its modification; the Articulate type and its relations to the Vertebrata; the Molluscan type and the conformation of the Radiata and Protozoa. He then reviews the mutual relations of the leading types of organization, and shows that Type and Design are co-extensive with organic nature; concluding with the bearings of the whole on Natural Theology. Numerous illustrations adorn the volume, and these are clear and appropriate, if not new. They are, indeed, better than those in most elementary books, in respect of appearance, and some are very good.

Quotation is not easy from a book which itself abounds in quotations, besides being systematic and dependent upon illustrations. As far as relates to rendering the researches of others intelligible to readers of ordinary powers, this book may be pronounced fairly successful; but we cannot refrain from observing that it is by no means a thoroughly elementary work. It presupposes a good deal of previous knowledge and a tolerably keen appetite for information. We apprehend that if put into the hands of common folks, they would ask for some other and simpler book as an introduction to it. Yet such a one does not at present exist, and therefore this one must be taken as it appears. Its defects for popular purposes seem to us to lie rather in the want of definitions and explanations than in any inaccuracies, for of these latter we have noticed none. The beginner will, for example, seek for a definition of Archetype, and will ask what is meant by the Archetype of a group of animals. We do not find the answer succinctly given in this volume. Prof. Huxley, however, informs us that "by the Common Plan, or Archetype, of a group of animals we understand nothing more than a diagram embodying all the organs and parts which are found in the group, in such a relative position as they would have if none had attained an excessive development." Here we have a plain and acceptable definition, although, as Prof. Owen has observed concerning it, "the student requires the standard according to which the excess is to be judged"—and has rather tartly added, "if the proposer of the Archetype has no standard to give, his definition has no value." We think this has an approximate value until a better definition is pro-

posed. But why have we to resort, as in this instance, to articles in cyclopedias for definitions? Why should not books aiming at popularity begin by attempting them, and end by appending a glossary? There is no glossary in this volume, and this is the more to be lamented as many of the terms are of recent introduction, and are not to be found even in the all-pretending dictionaries of late appearance, being total strangers even to Imperial dictionaries. We believe that even the author's namesake, and the euphonious Boag have not included such words as "homology," "homotype," "neuro-hemal," "blastodermic," "perivisceral," and others. Unlucky is the reader who knows not Greek, and has not the knack of guessing at meanings from his little store of that tongue. A little Greek is not a dangerous thing, but a thing indispensable here.

*My Recollections of the Last Four Popes, and of Rome in their Times. An Answer to Dr. Wiseman.* By Alessandro Gavazzi. (Partridge & Co.)

HEAR both parties. Cardinal Wiseman has told his tale, and an English audience has heard him with respect. But if a Cardinal may preach from the ball of St. Peter's, why may not a friar preach from the steps? Padre Gavazzi claims the authority of personal knowledge. He was not, he says, an importation into Rome, like other parties. He was a Roman subject born. This fact constitutes for him a title to be heard on the subject of the "Last Four Popes." He speaks of his own country, of men with whom he has served, and of institutions which have made him what he is. Padre Gavazzi begins with his first entry as a youth from Tuscany into the Roman territory:—

"Leaving the Tuscan frontiers, we enter within the limits of the Roman States, where the Pope commands as priest-king. We are now at Radiocofani. What is the sign by which the traveller perceives that he has entered the dominions of the priests? The appearance of squalor, poverty, and wretchedness, which surrounds him on every hand. A mile before he was in a country of rich crops, beautiful verdure, and smiling aspect; its neat villages betokened ease and content; the peasants' houses were simple, it is true, but clean and comfortable. He met shepherds improvising the poetry of nature, and peasants plaiting hats of straw—double guarantee of a life passed in innocence and industry. How can it be that he has scarcely set foot on clerical soil when the aspect of the scene suddenly changes and becomes at once harsh, wild, and desolate? Is it the change of soil? No, it is the same. Of climate? No, it is the same. Of language? No, it is the same. What, then, produces tendencies and conditions so different? I know not if the reader has ever traversed the Apennines which divide Piedmont from the Genoese territory at the point called Giovi. If on leaving Turin in the middle of January he can accomplish the journey to the top of these mountains in spite of perpetual blasts, clouds, snow, and ice, when once he begins to descend towards San Pier d'Arena it seems to him as if a wall of mountains divided two antipodes. He finds himself as by enchantment beneath a firmament of serene and tepid light, surrounded by a fragrant spring-time of violets, anemones, ranunculus, jonquils, and hyacinths, the dust rising in volumes beneath the wheels of his vehicle. In a word, he is in a different country. This may easily be explained. Beyond Giovi the north wind of the Alps reigns; south, the soft wind of the Mediterranean. But the difference between the Tuscan and the Roman States is not marked by Alps or seas, but by a simple barrier called the custom-house. The difference, therefore, of life, or rather existence, of the two countries, must be ascribed to its true cause; that is, to the difference in their respective Governments."

This is eloquently put. Now we travel with

the Padre on the road towards Rome. Here is a remark, made by every traveller from Siena to Rome—though not always made with the same emphasis or significance:—

"To say with the singer of Venosa that fear of the Briganti travelled with us would be a repetition of what Wiseman was unable to suppress in his reminiscences. But why was not this fear felt in Tuscany?"

We turn for Padre Gavazzi's answer to his own question to a chapter marked Brigands, where we find that he boldly attributes the prevalence of this peculiar Italian crime to the priests and Jesuits. Says the corrector of Dr. Wiseman:—

"At the extremity of Italy we see the projector of the Jesuits, the drunken Ferdinand of Naples, honouring a Fra Diavolo with commands and favours, hiring his guerilla of brigands *pur sang*, the priests swelling their ranks not only by means of their preaching, but also with their persons. History has transmitted to us, among the names of the followers of Fra Diavolo, the father of the present Cardinal Antonelli, a brigand of the first stamp; who, upon escaping from prison, when on the eve of being hung in the double quality of brigand and as the receiver of the stolen spoils by the other brigands, went to join the ranks of the friends of order and of the priests. On the return of Pius the Seventh to Rome he was rewarded with a pension for himself, and appointments for his worthy sons. But the priests did more for their dear brigands. They actually created them in the Northern States, where they did not exist at all before. Thus the mountainous districts of my native Bologna, and even its smiling valleys, then noted for their tranquil hospitable demeanour, were suddenly transformed into the theatre of armaments and depredations, under the pretence of raising these impromptu satellites to the honour of patriotic guerillas. But such they were not. Their country was not their object, they fought only for the priests. They certainly were not esteemed as guerillas by the French rulers, who, instead of judging them according to the rules of war, ruthlessly applied to them their Draconian code. Numbers of them were condemned to death, and among them many priests who, not content with having impressed several of the inhabitants of the country into the ranks of brigandage, and importing brigands from the south, themselves united with them in order to maintain their fanaticism, and to sanctify assassination. In but a single case, which I remember, two of those priests were found innocent. They were parish priests of a mountain district, and were accused of having sheltered, fed, and encouraged a band of brigands then under trial. All were condemned alike to death. My father defended the two priests, in whose behalf he in vain expounded all the forensic eloquence of which he was master. It was only after the sentence of condemnation had been passed that one of the witnesses for the accusation burst into tears, the effect of pity and remorse. My father at once guessed the cause of this excitement, and addressing him with severity, obtained from him the retraction of his testimony and his confession of the innocence of the priests, who, at the instance of their defender, were absolved and liberated."

Dr. Wiseman, as our readers may recollect, declares that the brigandage of Italy—meaning that of the Roman States—for the crime is all but unknown in Piedmont, in the Austrian States, and under the dominion of the Grand-Duke—must be attributed to the disturbance of Society caused by war and revolution. Do not, he begins in effect, blame the Pontifical Government for accidents. Brigandage is an abnormal condition of the Roman States—peace, happiness, and moral virtue the normal condition. Padre Gavazzi is of a very different opinion. He acquits the French and the Republicans alike, of being the cause of brigandage, and indeed this part of his answer to the Cardinal will strike most readers as tri-

umphant and complete. He puts a few pictorial questions:-

"When brigandage under Gregory XVI. had reached such a pass that subjects begged permission to wear arms to defend themselves from its attacks, was this the 'consequence of an abnormal' or 'normal' condition? And when the impudence of the brigands, previously to 1846, had risen to such an excess that no one dared to leave the towns for their summer country residences, for fear of being carried off by these hordes, and forced to pay enormous sums as the price of ransom, was this 'the fruit of a disturbance of public order by revolution'? Was it not rather the natural fruit of the Papal government? Let Wiseman write as many novels as he likes, and favour his flock with as many *Fabiolas* as he pleases; such productions admit not only of the improbable, but also of the absurd, for which he seems to have a special aptitude by nature. But let him not write history, which demands judgment and exactitude; but, above all, let him never philosophise, if when raising his hand to his cranium in the spot assigned to discernment, instead of a protuberance he should find a hollow. In proof of this he tells us that a system somewhat similar to that already detailed has revived, but more in the northern provinces. I would just ask him for the explanation of one or two facts out of a hundred. When a band of masked brigands, in October last, between Civita Vecchia and Rome, attacked the vettura which was laden with a most Catholic burden of bishops, priests, paladins, perverts or proselytes, both from America and England, robbed them of their valuables and beat some most undevoutly, were these the likenesses of brigands or brigands in reality? Was their attack made in the 'northern provinces' or in the southern? Let Wiseman answer. When, for the first time in the annals of railroad travelling, but a few months ago, brigands attacked the train between Rome and Frascati, on a Sunday, only four miles distant from the Papal metropolis, and in a twinkling relieved several hundred aristocratic excursionists of their jewellery and money, were these the shades of brigands, or brigands in flesh and blood exercising their honest calling under the meridional nose of his Holiness? Let Wiseman say. When on last Good Friday the brigand 'Vendetta' stole the Madonna of Velletri from her sanctuary in the cathedral, carried her off to his cave (a Madonna compelled to associate with brigands!) and demanded, as the conditions of her return, impunity for himself, several thousand scudi, and the life of his brother, condemned to death for similar traffic, was this the ghost of a brigand which made its appearance to frighten the 'northern provinces,' or a palpable brigand who descended to enliven the southern Roman States with his agreeable performances under the sweet and grateful name of 'Vendetta'?"

We rendered to our readers, from Cardinal Wiseman's 'Recollections,' an account of the unctuous description in which he delights to revive for English use pictures of the great Ceremonials of the Church. We shall add to these pictures Padre Gavazzi's description of a Conclave, the great meeting of Cardinals on the death of a Pontiff. The picture is taken from the Corso rather than from the Vatican:-

"A few hours after the termination of the ceremonial, in the evening of the following day, the cardinals set out from the church of the Noviciate of the Theatines, called St. Gaetano, surrounded by pomp, which, if not totally pagan, is certainly wholly worldly, and in procession enter the Quirinal palace, which is prepared for the use of conclave. It is during these *Novenali* that the Romans abandon themselves to their pasquinades, a species of popular satire in which they are unrivaled. These effusions prove the estimation in which conclave is held by the citizens of Rome. It would be impossible to convey any idea of the variety of these popular productions, so numerous are they, all of which, more or less, bear the impress of wit and originality. To confine myself to a few of them which circulated at the death of Leo, I remember one which compared conclave to presepio. The reader should know that presepio, among the

Papists, especially of the South, is a species of panorama of little statuettes which represent the stable at Bethlehem at the moment that the shepherds adore the new-born Messiah. The cardinalistic presepio was composed of the following personages:-Cardinal Micara represented St. Joseph, Odescalchi the Madonna, Barberini the babe, Bettini the ox, Vidoni the ass. Each of the other cardinals represented the shepherds, goats, fowls, and cabbages, which Popish tradition pretends were offered to the cradle of the divine infant. A second pasquinade likened the conclave to Noah's ark, into which popular opinion has erroneously imagined that all the beasts entered two and two. What a miraculous coincidence that the cardinals should enter conclave two and two! The pasquinade assigned to each cardinal the name of some beast with whose instincts his own most prominently and visibly accorded. The collection was rich in tigers, hyenas, hippopotami, crocodiles, wolves, foxes, cats, buffaloes, and donkeys, of which the Zoological Gardens might be envious, though with regard to variety they are certainly richer than the Noatic ark. A third pasquinade, and it shall be the last, applied to each cardinal a verse of the litany which in the Roman Church is called the Major Litany (*litaniae maiores*), and in the Anglican Church, which has copied it in part is simply called 'Litany or General Supplication.' Nothing more true or appropriate can be conceived. Thus it ran:-'From the crafts and assaults of the devil, i. e. Cardinal Albani, good Lord, deliver us. From plague, famine, and from battle, i. e. Cardinal Vidoni, good Lord, deliver us. From lightning and tempest, i. e. Cardinal Pacca, good Lord, deliver us. From murder and sudden death, i. e. Cardinal Bernetti, good Lord, deliver us,' and so on. The longest lists being under the titles, from pride, vain-glory, and hypocrisy, from envy, hatred, and malice, and all uncharitableness, from fornication and all other deadly sins. Such is the estimation in which the Romans hold conclave, and such their respect for the electors and election of a Pope."

Every one who has read the Cardinal's book will recollect the passages on the abolition by Leo the Twelfth of the raised seats erected for the convenience of foreign ladies in the Papal chapels. On this point our author writes:-

"I was at Rome at the two periods of 'raised seats,' and 'seats low on the ground,' and can affirm as an eye-witness that to profanity succeeded something worse. In spite of Swiss sentinels, men often enter the place reserved for the ladies, especially on occasions of a great crowd, and the effect obtained is not always in accordance with decency. The darkness in which the chapels are artificially enwrapped is marvellously favourable to the premeditated projects of the Verrios and Lotharios, which are not always the purest and holiest. But if the 'raised seats' appeared to the eyes of Leo such an abomination in the two Papal chapels, why did he retain them in St. Giovanni di Laterano, in Santa Maria Maggiore, and above all in St. Pietro di Vaticano? Would Wiseman like to make me believe that the 'raised seats' in these churches were not 'shamefully abused,' like those in the 'two Papal chapels'? But I can testify to the contrary: for I am not ashamed to recall the fact that it was under Leo the Twelfth I had the opportunity for the first time in my life of admiring the surpassing beauty of the English women, prominently exhibited upon the 'raised platform' of St. Peter, to the great delight of all beholders. I therefore express myself in moderate terms when I call the bigotry of Leo ridiculous. In truth it was rather stupid than ridiculous to remove 'the raised platform' from the Papal chapels and leave it in the Papal churches, when the object was in both cases identical."

We need not quote more anecdotes and corrections. What we have transferred to our columns will have shown the reader whether this be the kind of book for him to read at length. Padre Gavazzi writes as he speaks, with a flush of light and language somewhat overpowering. Italian taste in these matters is not our taste. Indeed, in roundness of period

and rhetorical artifice he out-cardinals the Cardinal. But his facts are curious. His pictures are vivid. Wisdom remembers, too, that it is good to hear all sides of a question so subtle and intricate as that of priestly domination.

*The Evils of Wet-Nursing: a Warning to Mothers.—How to Manage a Baby.—Why do not Women Swim? a Voice from many Waters.—How to Feed a Baby with the Bottle.* Ladies' National Association for the Diffusion of Sanitary Knowledge. (Groombridge & Sons.)

THE Ladies' National Association for the Diffusion of Sanitary Knowledge has already had our cordial good word [see *Athenaeum*, No. 1573], and we are glad that any undertaking having such practical bearing on the welfare of all the world should go on and prosper. We desire that its circle of influence may widen in proportion to its importance.

In the early days of Christianity, when it was making its protest against Paganism, the mortification of the body was set up against the worship of the senses and the cultivation of physical perfection, which had been so sedulously pursued under the auspices of the old gods. To save the soul, it was considered essential that the body should be persecuted and put down. The pleasures and comforts of this life were put in antagonism against the pains of Purgatory, which were set forth as their sure consequence,—whilst the glories of Heaven and the Paradise of the Saints were the gifts that followed mortification, fasting, and all the austerities that could be inflicted on the flesh. "He who is careful of health shall not attain unto holiness" was a proverb in the Church, and the penances and the macerations that the great saints practised and the lesser ones tried to imitate are enough to curdle one's blood at this time of day. To save the soul, it was necessary that the body should be devoted to destruction; and though human nature remained human nature, and was interpenetrated with a love of pleasure and a capacity for enjoyment which was too strong to be obliterated, still the body was under a ban. The blame of all the sin and misery in the world was laid upon the body, which was treated as an entirely separate and guilty entity, which misled, tyrannized over, and brought to grief the unhappy soul, confined within its fleshly walls. The exhortations of preachers and teachers were not so much for living as for dying. "Graves, worms, and epitaphs," were the subjects that men were invited to contemplate.

Under this teaching it is not surprising that the old laws of health and the cultivation of bodily perfection fell into disuse. The comfort and luxuries of the old Pagan civilization were lost amid the wreck of nations and the irruption of barbarians. They have been very slow to find themselves again. Up to a recent period, few persons realized how far the morbid influence of disease in the bodily frame expressed itself in fierce, cruel, morose, insane, bad actions,—nor how much an unwholesome diet and noxious miasma weaken the influence of the cardinal virtues. Voltaire, in his 'Essai sur les Mœurs,' has an article witty and true, but not exactly quotable in these columns, founded on the character St. Paul gives of the Cretans. Latterly, the more enlightened idea has gained ground that, as men, to use the words of the Apostle, are "God's workmanship," it is incumbent on them to reverence their bodies. The balance needs re-adjusting. The cultivation of health of body is essential to a healthy morality. A perfectly sound mind can only dwell in a sound

body. No efforts of reason can see clearly and steadily things as they *really* are through the atmosphere of bile and jaundice:

*Flora's wreath through coloured crystal seen  
The rose and lily appears blue or green.*

The old proverb declares it to be "ill talking between a full man and a fasting," the physical conditions being so different; and the sensitive organization which an east wind will disturb needs careful tending to keep its indications of an average correctness. It is well known that in insanity the overthrow of reason is nearly always preceded by disorder, if not disease of the viscera; bodily derangement generally goes before mental alienation. In the minor article of temper the comfort of many households has fallen a sacrifice to an ill-conditioned state of liver. It seems like a truism, but we believe that a general advance in the average of good health, and the diffusion of knowledge of the laws which regulate health, would be followed by a wonderful accession of common sense, the enlightenment of the world, and "the progress of the species," to say nothing of "the greater happiness of the greater number," and of all the fine things that have been ever predicated of a possible human nature. We would even go a step further, and declare our belief that no great moral improvement can take place without a corresponding knowledge of the laws of health and disease. Any association that has the diffusion of this knowledge for its object is working in a right direction—it is the true means to a wise end, for even good health is not "the chief end of man," only the means to enable him to live without impediment,—to remove every unnecessary hindrance to his becoming all that he was made capable of doing and being, and of which he now falls so sadly short.

The pamphlets at the head of our article are all good in their way:—the one entitled 'The Evils of Wet-Nursing' strikes us (uninitiated that we are) as too declamatory to do much good—facts are better than figures of speech, and "the dwellers in palatial mansions," to whom the tract is addressed, would find some difficulty in extracting the sunbeams from the mist in which they are shrouded.

The tract entitled 'Why do not Women Swim?' is excellent for its good sense and suggestiveness; but even through this there runs a tone of declamation and antagonism which is not pleasant nor judicious. There is no earthly reason why women should not swim like Ondines; it would be an extremely desirable attainment, and nobody would hinder them. The matter would be as simple as learning to walk, and there is not the least need why they should call on all the universe to assist as at the sight of a miracle; few would take any notice or make any remarks, nor even, we fear, be cognizant of the fact. Women would have the use and convenience of knowing how to swim as men have, who make no fuss or wonder about it. It is not men who hinder women from doing rational things; it is women who hinder each other. Let women be true to themselves, and reasonably good-natured to each other, and their rights and their wrongs and their difficulties will all adjust themselves.

We presume to offer no comment on the occult mysteries of managing a baby, but we doubt whether a baby would be the better for not being spoken to in the common dialect of nonsense, sacred to babies since the days of Babel. "Good English," such as the writer recommends, would scarcely lend itself to the tones of nursery language; may be we speak like those of the unprofessed school, but, at least, we are willing to witness im-

provement in all and everything, and we wish the Associated Ladies every success.

*A Handbook of the Principal Families in Russia, originally written in French, by Prince Paul Dolgorouky. Translated into English, with Annotations and an Introduction. By F. Z. (Ridgway.)*

We are glad to see this book translated, but we wish that the task had fallen into better hands. "F. Z." gives the world scarcely any of the information with which a work on so unfamiliar a subject ought to have been accompanied. He does not tell us that it was originally published under the pseudonym of 'D'Almagro,' when the noble author was ambassador at Paris, in 1843,—nor that the late Emperor Nicholas recalled him in consequence,—and even (according to Golovin) placed fresh difficulties in the way of Russian travellers after the event,—nor that the Prince paid the further penalty of a brief exile to Viatka. He does not add (what we believe to be the case) that, notwithstanding his unlucky authorship, the same Prince Paul Dolgorouky is now Police Minister—that is to say, Minister of the Interior. As for his other omissions, they surprise us less. That an English translator should have nothing to say about such names—occurring in the Russian noblesse—as Bruce, Fermor, and Barclay (Barclay de Tolly) might seem surprising were there not other evidences that our present one is not an Englishman at all, but a Pole. This is shown by the un-English character—easier to feel than describe—of the style of his Introduction, and by the intrusion of Polish views wherever the text gives a pretext for a dissertation. These views may be right or wrong; but all that we have to do with them here is to pronounce them out of place in a book intended especially for the British reader. What was really wanted was a good Memoir of the author, and such a view of the Russian nobility as should have explained its relation historically and socially to the nobility of our own country. The substitute for this is a turgid and unsatisfactory Introduction, little of which is of any real interest to dwellers in this part of the world.

The book itself, however, is a very different affair, and is in many points of view highly curious, especially at a moment when Europe is watching with eagerness the great problem of the abolition of Russian serfage. It is a kind of guide to the historic character of the Russian aristocracy by a first-rate Russian patrician—the member of a family answering in Russia to our Courtenays and Lindsays. The Dolgoroukys are one of the princely old houses which spring from Rurik, that stalwart Scandinavian who, in the tenth century, overran and conquered Russia, and laid the foundations of its modern history. The first Romanoff who was Czar married into this family, which has in every reign played an important part in politics and society. So that our author's point of view (however artfully managed) is thoroughly patrician, and of the old school. He has always a secret reminiscence that *his* is one of the races which were as eligible to the crown of Muscovy as the Romanoffs themselves, and he has a kind of pleasure in showing the base ways in which the modern nobility have risen under the despotism which so studiously levelled the old historic houses. There is a family likeness in aristocracies. Prince Dolgorouky (perhaps unconsciously) reminds one of what a member of the Claudian family would have said of Sejanus under the Empire;—of the kind of view old Douglas, *Bell-the-Cat*, took of

James the Third and his favourites,—or of the tone of a Percy when the news came to the north that another "new man" had been raised by Queen Elizabeth. The proof that this kind of feeling is of real practical importance in Russia is, that the crack patrician names will be found in all the conspiracies which have thrown such a gloomy and terrible interest round the openings of the reigns of the late Emperors. Neither is it at all improbable that the preservation of the patrician, as distinct from the bureaucratic spirit, may yet be an agency of value in establishing Constitutionalism in the Russian Empire; while it is certain, from the circumstances of that empire that its nobility is the real depository of whatever refinement and civilization it possesses, in common with the West. So that the constitution of such a body is not a matter of importance to heralds only, much less to fashionable reporters and dressmakers, but has a downright solid and serious interest for statesmen and philosophers.

The aristocracy of Russia has been formed, like others, in *layers*, so to speak. Ethnologically, it is more various than almost any aristocracy,—comprising Scandinavians, Slavonians, Tatars, Germans, Armenians, Georgians, and even Englishmen and Scotsmen. As a commission in the army, or a certain civil rank, has conferred hereditary nobility since Peter the First's time, the extensiveness of the body may be fancied. Our author only deals, of course, with historic or conspicuous families; and the classification which society makes of these may be learned from the following passage:

"According to the purport of the law of January 12th, 1682, all the Russian noblemen enjoy equal rights, without regard to their titles and origin. But, under a point of view merely honorific, the official blazon of the Russian nobility (deposited in the heraldic office of the senate at St. Petersburg), is divided into five classes, viz., 1.—The Princes of the empire. 2.—The Counts of the empire. 3.—The Barons of the empire. 4.—Gentlemen without titles, whose nobilitation had taken place previous to Peter the First; and 5.—Gentlemen without titles, who were ennobled after that reign."

Of princes whom he describes as "descendants of Rurik from the male lineage direct and legitimate, by the sequence of birthright," he enumerates *thirty-one*. This is only the wreck of that original ancient aristocracy which elsewhere the Prince seems to consider to be on the wane; but if we compare it with the surviving number of corresponding houses amongst ourselves, it must be considered large. For we are to take into account not only greatness of antiquity, but splendour of origin. These thirty-one are from the ninth century—beyond which Savoy and Nassau cannot be traced, and to which Hapsburg and Hohenzollern do not even pretend to reach—and their root is the conqueror of a country. Among ourselves, the early great houses—Morvilles, Dunbars, Comyns, Balios, in Scotland—Bellmonts, Montfords, De Clares, De Meschines, in England—have not only vanished long ago, but those who survive are frequently the representatives of far inferior men.

The names of these Russian potentates—Odoievsky, Zuenigorodsky, Scherbatoff, &c.—sound somewhat harsh in British ears. *Gortchakoff*, who figures amongst them, is more familiar, and the method of our author may be exemplified by quoting his paragraph on this branch of the race of Rurik:

"This family took the name from a surname *Gortchak*, borne by one of their forefathers. Of two heroes, who defended Smolensk, during eighteen months against the King Sigismund of Poland,

far it may be a genuine narrative, we cannot undertake to say, the manufacture of revelations from low life having been tolerably extensive, and not a little successful, of late years. But we certainly do not discover in it much that any ordinary compiler would find it difficult to put together, after ransacking the police-reports in a file of old papers. However, it is professedly designed to quicken the compassion of Dives for Lazarus, and it may or may not have that effect. At all events, it proposes that sort of interest which will induce some readers to imagine that, while following "the adventures of an obscure medical man in a low neighbourhood," they are studying the secrets of the great world. Whether from personal experience or not, the compiler has collected a variety of illustrations of the life of poverty, which are apparently authentic.

*The Twelfth Report of the Associate Institution for Improving and Enforcing the Laws for the Protection of Women (Palmer) lies before us, with the Thirty-first Annual Report of the Directors of James Murray's Royal Asylum for Lunatics, near Perth (Perth, Dewar).—With these publications may be classed The Coroner's Court: its Uses and Abuses, with Suggestions for Reform, by J. J. Dempsey (Hatton & Co.),—Board Management: an Address to Shareholders in Search of a Dividend (Stanford),—The Use of Clairvoyance in Medicine, by John Mill, a second edition (Freeman).—On the Origin and Progress of the Oceanic Electric Telegraph (Johnson),—and New Purifying Sewers for the Thames, by Hector Horeau (Weale).—Maintaining the discussion of his one idea, Mr. Malcolm Lewin publishes The Way to regain India (Ridgway).*

*The Growth of Russian Power contingent on the Decay of the British Constitution (Hardwicke) appears to be a medley of newspaper articles.—Unity of Suffrage: or, the Propriety of Single Votes in Elections (Bartlett) is a political proposal from Bedford.—An interesting little tract contains Observations on the Process patented by M. Falcony for Embalming and Preserving the Deceased.—Bodily Exercise, by Thomas Hopley (Houlston & Wright), is the continuation of a series of "plain and simple lectures on the Education of Man."—Two or three miscellanies of a special character may be allowed to explain their objects by their titles:—The Progress of Agriculture (Houlston & Wright),—On the Extraction of Precious Metals by Means of Mitchell's Patent Amalgamating Machinery, by John Mitchell (Clay),—Fever in Agricultural Districts, by Henry W. Acland (J. H. & J. Parker),—and The Visitor's Guide to Malvern (Malvern, Lamb), for the use of such as listen to the old itinerist's declaration, "At Malvern thou shalt find both pleasure and beauty," in the season especially, when round hats crown the Joyscar Rock or throng in Lady Mary Talbot's walk.—A more substantial handbook is British Columbia and Vancouver's Island (Effingham Wilson).—We have also, in a neat cover, Philip's Authentic Map of British Columbia, with its Gold Fields (Philip).*

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## OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

The Middlesex Archaeological Society hold their next meeting on Wednesday, at Enfield. The chair is to be taken at one o'clock, by Lord Ebury, —and the members afterwards dine together at four.

A contribution to literary history has been brought to light in the shape of Pope's Correspondence with Broome. These MSS., now in the hands of Messrs. Puttick & Simpson, of Piccadilly, for sale by auction, consist of near one hundred letters, many of them in the hand of Pope, and nearly all relate to the translation of the *Odyssy*. They are said to throw new light on the relative shares in that work of Pope, the Rev. Mr. Broome, and Mr. Fenton.

A Report for the year of the Liverpool Public Library shows the kind of reading in which the people of our second port delight. The library is ranged in fifteen classes. One of these is Classical Literature. Liverpool furnishes two readers a day (probably the same persons) in this department. In the class of Novels there are 272 readers! Again, in the class Commerce, Political Economy, and Social Statistics, subjects that would be thought to interest, if not amuse, a commercial city, there are only three readers daily,—in the class Law and Politics there are only four readers daily,—while in the class Miscellaneous Literature there are 187. These returns would seem to show that the Public Library has scarcely advanced as yet beyond a laudable competition with the singing-rooms and penny theatres. They prove at all events that a public exists in Liverpool willing to be amused, though not very eager for instruction, and that the Town Council has power to draw people from Waterloo Road to Vanity Fair, from the gin-palace to Bleakwater House, if they choose to spend their money in experiments at reformation. A cosy room, good lights, and a cheerful fire, all, too, got free of cost, will always have a certain attraction in towns not blessed with the sun of Andalucia. One would be more pleased to see these turned to greater account. Whipt cream is but poor food,—and incessant novel reading, our Liverpool friends may be perfectly sure, is a bad substitute for intellectual corn and wine.

We print the following lines with pleasure:—

"Ross, Herefordshire, Oct. 11.

"I have just read your kind notice of the Memoir of the Rev. Henry S. Polehampton. Will you allow me, while I thank you for the general tone of your remarks, to express my regret that

in your quotation from page 304 you did not add my brother's condemnation of Dr. —'s thoughtlessness? At present it reads in your review as though my brother joined in the laugh, whereas he says, "It was a mistake of the worthy doctor's; one should never triumph over one's enemies, however despicable they may be." I am sure he would always have disapproved of such an act, as would also Dr. — himself, had he thought for a few moments. I regret that the anecdote was not expunged before the Diary was published.

"I am, &c., THOMAS S. POLEHAMPTON."

The Association for the Promotion of Social Science has held festival in Liverpool during the week. Among the papers is one by Mr. William Brown, 'On the Disadvantages of our System of Coinage in Education.' This is a subject in which, unfortunately, the philanthropists have not found out that a cast of their function is wanted. Nobody cares for the wrongs inflicted on little boys and girls by putting unnecessary difficulties in their way. Every one who has gone through the mill himself thinks his children do as he did: and a great many persons who are conscious of every possible deficiency of calculating power never ask themselves whether the teaching which they underwent was sound and good. Owing to the primary importance of money calculation as the application of arithmetic, and the distorted character of our coinage divisions, the arithmetical training in our country may be summed up as follows. As soon as the great rules of arithmetic are taught, the practice of them on a sufficient scale must be avoided, in order that the learner may begin to master what is in reality a new system of subdivision. A decimal coinage would be to the learner a continuation of, and framing in, his earlier rules. The end of it is that the common, or decimal, arithmetic is learnt until the time for practice arrives, and then a system is presented which will not allow of that practice. This is as if an army should be trained to use the rifle until the enemy is near, and should then be provided with matchlocks for actual service.

A translation of Lord Normanby's book on the Revolution of February has been published in Paris, "sans nom d'auteur," which, we presume, applies to the translator. It has produced there what it failed to do here, a sensation, and Orleanists and Republicans, to the great delight of the Imperialists, are preparing to assail one another, as well as the book, with all the power of pen and pamphlet.

In our first notice of Bacon's Works we quoted the old spider simile against the logicians, from our memory of the monkish Latin in which Bacon probably found it. We have since looked up the collection of smart sayings from which our extract came, and we quote a couple more of the witticisms to which the reading man was exposed. It appears from the whole satire, that *logicus* is not merely the *logician*, but the student of letters, or *arts*, as they then were called, in general. Our first extract is in its point the old sarcasm against the Stoics, that they spent so much time in brightening their armour, that there was none left for fighting.

Propter artes vigilans est revera stultus;  
Cur circa Geogram patens singultus?  
Ager sic per steriles faciat incultus,  
Telluris si forte vells cognoscere cultus.

In the following, we have taken the liberty of writing *sane*, which makes sense, instead of *namsque*, which does not; saying, with Bentley, *Hoc corrige meo periculo*. We conjecture the first two lines to mean that the poor student in arts, who does not look very sharp into the affairs of life, is fortunate if he do not find, after his marriage, that he has a *privigna* whom his wife cannot own. But this under correction of the learned.—

Si fortuna logico favet in privigno,  
Vultu sane logicum respicit benigno.  
Si sit dives logicus hoc sub eell signo  
Eara avit in terra nigroque simillima cygno.

"Walpole's whimsical prophecy, made a century since, under a rise of prices in England, 'that presently no one would be able to keep a cow who was less rich than Lord Clive,' is brought to one's mind," writes a travelling friend, "by the aggravation of every expense of living, clothing, eating, and drinking in Paris, which has taken place since I first knew it—a score of years ago. It may be, then,

a matter of economy, no less than of convenience and variety, for the traveller who wishes to make Strasbourg from Calais to be able to avoid the capital. This can now be done, thanks to railways, since the road indicated last year by me, branching off from Douai, by Valenciennes, Cambrai, Busigny, St. Quentin, Laon, Rheims, falling into the great Strasbourg road at Epernay, is now open throughout: one rich, let me repeat, in objects of architectural interest. From this point again, by taking a branch-line (which is finished, so far as I can read the insidious book Chasix—a positive French *Bradshaw* in its riddles) by Blesme, Chaumont, Langres, Gray, and Auxonne, the pilgrim who wishes to vary his route southward can join the great line from Paris to Marseilles, at Dijon. Should a direct service ever be established on this route, it will occupy little, if any, more time than the one already familiar to the tourist."

Next year a century will have passed away since the publication of the second and last edition of Horace Walpole's "Royal and Noble Authors of England." Walter Scott, no despoil of dignities, says that you could hardly pick out, on any principle of selection, the same number of plebeian authors whose works are so bad: he means, of course, on any principle of selection except badness itself. It is time, we think, that this list should be brought up. The century ending 1859 contains very powerful additions to the corps of titled authors. A reprint and continuation should carry the plan a little further. Horace Walpole left out all men of noble birth who did not actually succeed to titles. Thus, though Charles Boyle and Roger Boyle, being actual Earls, have their places, the "father of chemistry and brother of the Earl of Cork" is excluded. This is not dealing fairly by the principle. Again, it may be asked, whether Walter Scott's sarcasm would have been fired if Horace Walpole had been capable of knowing all the writings of titled persons? And further, it may be remembered that previously to the reign of Anne there was an etiquette by which titled persons refrained from putting their names to their books:—such a description as "By a person of honour" took the place of the author's name. For this reason Lord Brouncker could not be known to Walpole by his separate work; and of course not by the *Philosophical Transactions*.

We regret to have to report the death, on the 10th of this month, of the eminent German writer, Varnhagen von Ense. It took place, at Berlin, suddenly and unexpectedly; for, although the deceased reached the advanced age of seventy-four years, yet he enjoyed good health up to the very moment of his death, which surprised him at a game of chess, and was brought on by a fit of pulmonary apoplexy.

M. Ochsner, of Rotterdam, will stand on record as the first *podoscapher*. These *podoscaphes* are a species of sabot, about 15 feet long and 9 inches high (or deep). Standing erect, the *podoscapher*, provided with a pole flattened at the end (for padding), and 12 feet long, can advance, turn, or recede with great swiftness in water not deeper than the length of the pole. M. Ochsner won a wager by ascending the Rhine, from Rotterdam to Cologne, in his *podoscaphes* in seven days.

Niccolini's long-talked-of tragedy, "Mario," has been recently published here, "by the care," as the title-page informs us, of Signor Corrado Gargioli, a youthful and, to say the least of it, a somewhat injudicious admirer of the venerable author of "Arnaldo." Signor Gargioli, it seems, has been for some time admitted to Niccolini's closest intimacy, and has been allowed the perusal of his manuscript works. It is owing to his earnest prayers alone that "Mario" has seen the light during the poet's lifetime,—so at least Signor Gargioli sets forth in a prefatory discourse, in which, after regarding the political tragedies of Niccolini as component parts of one great edifice, he boldly proclaims the "Mario," in defiance, it would seem, of architectural requirements and the rules of common sense, to be "*the basis and completion*" of the grand political whole, and of the poet's fame! Although the appearance of any work from such a pen is not a matter to be passed over *sous silence* in the columns of the *Athenæum*, still, as the critical

dissection of this tragedy could unfortunately add nothing to its author's nobly-earned literary reputation, it is better to abstain from any discussion of its merits. An extract from the leading literary journal of Florence, *La Rivista di Firenze*, will show in what tone the good sense and right feeling of our Tuscan critics notice its publication.—"It was a happy thought and well worthy of the author of 'Arnaldo' and 'Giovanni da Procida' to place on the Italian stage the stern, brave man, sprung from the people, who liberated Italy and her civilization from the power of the Cimbri. We were informed last year that this work was completed, but we are now convinced of the reverse, and grieve to find that Niccolini has had neither health nor leisure to give that dramatic form to his noble conception which should throw into strong relief the character of Marius, his deeds, and his times. The work now published is made up of a number of scenes, which by no means form a tragedy. Here and there we find a flash of that lofty genius and of that free spirit which created those other works, never to be forgotten by Italy. There occurs here and there a powerful thought, sometimes happily expressed, sometimes clothed in a careless and ungraceful style; but plot or dramatic action there is none. The author himself lately assured a person worthy of all credence that his work was not complete and required much retouching. We therefore conceive that of himself he would never have published it in its present state. And we think, moreover, that the gentleman who has assumed the care of publishing it, and who seems to have full power over the keys of the venerable poet's writing-desk, has done him ill service, both by inducing him to publish this work, and by prefixing to it a few sentences of his own so wanting in delicacy, appearing, as they do, during the author's lifetime, as to have fairly scandalized our whole city."

THE DERBY DAY.—FRITH'S GREAT PICTURE is NOW ON VIEW AT MESSRS. LEGGATT, HAWARD & LEGGATT'S Establishment, No. 79, Cornhill, from 9 A.M. to 7 P.M.—Admission, 1s. each person.—70c. Cornhill.

PROFESSOR WILHELM FRICKEL.—LAST WEEK BUT ONE.—NEW TRICKS IN OPTOGRAPHIC HALL, King William Street, Charing Cross.—TWO HOURS OF ILLUSIONS, previous to Professor Frickel's departure on a Provincial Tour. Every Evening at Eight; Saturday Afternoons at Three. Private Boxes, One Guinea; Box Stalls, 2s.; Orchestra Stalls, 2s.; Areas, 2s.; Amphitheatre, 1s. Places may be secured at the Optographic Hall, and at Mr. Mitchell's Royal Library, 35, Old Bond Street.

ROYAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.—Patron, H.R.H. THE PRINCE CONSOLO.—THE MACHINERY IN MOTION. LECTURES ON CHEMISTRY, NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, MUSIC, WITH OTHER INSTRUCTIONAL AMUSEMENTS, RENDERING THIS INSTITUTION THE MOST ENTHUSIASIZING AND INSTRUCTIVE ASSESSMENT OF EDUCATION. ARITHMETIC, DRAWING, LANGUAGES, &c., ARE NOW IN PROGRESS UNDER COMPETENT PROFESSORS, AT FEES WITHIN THE REACH OF ALL.—ON MONDAY, the 26th inst., AN ENTIRELY NEW LECTURE ON ARTIFICIAL LIGHT APPLIED TO PHOTOGRAPHY.

MANAGING DIRECTOR, R. J. LONGBOTTOM, ESQ.

Dr. KAHN'S ANATOMICAL MUSEUM, 3, Tichbourne Street, opposite the Haymarket. Open Daily, from Gentlemen only. Lectures on Anatomy, Physiology, and Pathology (with a Lecture on Imposture and interesting topics in connection with Anatomy, Physiology, and Pathology) (vide Programmes). Admission, 1s.—Dr. Kahn's Nine Lectures on the Philosophy of Marriage, &c., sent post free, direct from the Author, on the receipt of twelve stamps.

## SCIENCE

### TWENTY-EIGHTH MEETING OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

MONDAY.

#### SECTION A.—MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

Lord WROTHESLEY took the chair of the Section, in the absence of the President, and opened the proceedings by stating that a copy of "The Ordnance Survey of Great Britain," containing an account of the principal triangulations, together with a volume of plates, which now lay on the table, had been presented by Col. James for the library of the Association at Kew.

"On a General Method of deriving the Properties of Umbilical Surfaces of the Second Order, having three unequal Axes, from the Properties of the Sphere," by Dr. BOOTH.—The author called the attention of the Section to the researches of M. Chasles and other French geometers, on the methods of deriving the properties of surfaces of revolution from those of the sphere by the method of "Reciprocal Polars," and called attention to the fact, that they did grapple with the more general problem when the three axes are unequal. Dr. Booth

mentioned as the results of the method he developed, that every umbilical surface of the second order has four directrix planes parallel to the circular sections of the surface; that these directrix planes—when the surface is an ellipsoid—pass two by two through the directrices of the principal section, in which lie the greatest and mean axes; that every such surface has four foci situated two by two on the umbilical diameters; that when the surface is an oblate spheroid, the four directrix planes are reduced to two parallel to the equator; and he concluded by showing that every graphic property of the sphere may be reproduced in an analogous form in umbilical surfaces of the second order having three unequal axes.

"On the Use of Amethyst Plates in Experiments on the Polarization of Light," by Sir D. BREWSTER.—

In order to determine the exact position of the plane of primitive polarization it was usual to observe when the intensity of the extraordinary image of the analyzing prism was a minimum; but as it is difficult to obtain light perfectly homogeneous, the light of this image could not be completely extinguished. In his experiments on the rotatory phenomena of quartz, M. Biot employed a coloured glass, which transmitted only the extreme red rays of the spectrum; but this method, owing to the great loss of light on the polarized pencil, was attended with so many inconveniences that fifteen or twenty trials were required before he could determine the zero of his instrument. In order to remedy this evil, M. Soleil interposed between the polarizing apparatus and the analyzing prism two plates of quartz of equal thickness, the one right-handed and the other left-handed. These plates were united so as to give the same tint when the plane of the principal section of the analyzing prism coincided with the plane of primitive polarization. This ingenious apparatus was submitted to the Academy of Sciences on the 23rd of June, 1845, and has been used since that time by M. Seznac and others in their experiments on polarization. In the year 1819 I communicated to the Royal Society of Edinburgh the very same method of placing the principal section of the analyzing prism in the plane of primitive polarization; but in place of using two plates of right and left handed quartz, I used a single plate of amethyst, in which the two kinds of quartz were combined, during the formation of the crystal. This piece of apparatus, which is obviously superior to that of M. Soleil, is thus described in the paper to which I have referred:—

"The properties of amethyst, which have now been described, render a plate of this mineral a valuable addition to our apparatus for conducting experiments on the polarization of light. If we wish to place the principal section of the analyzing prism exactly in the plane of primitive polarization, we have only to interpose a thin plate of amethyst like that shown in the figure, and if the tints of both sets of veins are exactly similar the analyzing prism will have the required position. If the one set of tints is bluer or whiter than the other, or if there is the slightest difference between them, the position of the prism must be altered till that difference is no longer perceptible. If we wish to place a plate of sulphate of lime or any other crystal, so as to have its principal section in the plane of primitive polarization, the interposition of the amethyst plate will give us the same assistance, by indicating that the circular (rotatory) tints are not affected by it, whereas if we wish to place the axis of the sulphate of lime at an angle of 45° to the primitive plane of polarization, the amethyst will point out this position when the opposite circular tints suffer an equal change."

"On the Heating of the Atmosphere by Contact with the Earth's Surface," by Prof. HENNESSY.—The temperature of the atmosphere depends principally on the heat which it receives from the sun and on what it loses by radiation. A portion of the solar heat is absorbed in passing through the air, while another portion penetrates to the earth's surface. The ground becomes thus heated, and the lower strata of the atmosphere acquire the greater part of their heat from contact with the warmed surface. It is admitted that the mode in which the air becomes heated by contact with the ground must be a kind of circulation analogous to

that seen in the movements of a heated mass of liquid, such as boiling water. When studying the vertical movements of the atmosphere, with reference to which Prof. Hennessy had made a communication to the Association last year, he had been led to consider the connexion between such movements and the influence of the heated ground. In order to experimentally study the question, thermometers were suspended at different heights above the ground, and under different circumstances of exposure to the influence of the supposed currents. Observations were made every minute, and sometimes every half minute, during short intervals, about the middle of the month of May, on days when the sky was clear, and during which there was consequently a great deal of solar radiation. In general the thermometers exhibited fluctuations of temperature, the intensity of which diminished the more they were protected from the influence of circulating currents in the air. The greatest fluctuations were presented by thermometers with blackened bulbs exposed in the sun. This arose from the circumstance that the blackened bulb, by acquiring a high temperature, became themselves disturbing agents in the calorific conditions of the surrounding air. Evidence of similar phenomena appears to be presented by the curves of temperature obtained by the aid of photographic registration at the Radcliffe Observatory in Oxford. Attention has been called by Mr. Johnson to a remarkable serration in the temperature curves during the day. This serration is found only when there is a considerable amount of solar radiation, it disappears during sunless and cloudy weather. While it is explained by referring it to the influence of the solar heat upon the ground, and the consequent circulation of small atmospheric currents, it affords a very satisfactory confirmation of the trustworthiness of the photographic method of registration.

'On the Decrease of Temperature over Elevated Ground,' by Prof. HENNESSY.—He showed that the decrease of temperature in ascending through the atmosphere depended not only on height above the sea level, but also upon the absolute height above the nearest surface of solid land. In this way the decrease of temperature over plains, mountains, and plateaus, would be necessarily very different, and we cannot immediately infer the state of the phenomena in the two latter instances from what may exist in the former. Some of the results of observations made on some of the hills and mountains of Ireland during the Ordnance Survey, as contained in the volume recently published by Col. James, were referred to as illustrations of these general views.

Admiral FITZROY thought that one circumstance was too much overlooked by Prof. Hennessy in these researches, namely, that along with these ascending currents the whole body of the air was carried along by horizontal currents, so that it could not be assumed that it was the very same air which gave some of the indications which afforded the others. Again, it had been clearly shown that a thermometer placed upon the ground, or close to it, frequently fell 1° or 18° below one placed a few feet or inches above it, while somewhat higher up still the indications of the thermometer again fell, thus clearly indicating a spot at which there was a maximum temperature. As to the latter part of what he stated, it was so commonly observed that if you placed a thermometer in the lower window of a house, and another in the window immediately above it, in nine cases out of ten you would find the latter indicate a lower temperature than the former.—Prof. STEVELLY said that, besides what Admiral FitzRoy had pointed out, there were two other circumstances of much importance to be attended to in such observations as Prof. Hennessy had been making. First, that evaporation was going on more or less rapidly according to the circumstances of the locality where the observations were conducted. Secondly, that the air, when having,—either gradually, as in some cases, or abruptly, as in others,—to ascend in its course very elevated ground, was compelled to contract in volume, become condensed, and yet in some cases part with a portion of its vapour, and thus form the cloud which we so often saw capping the hills,

as well as giving origin to the high winds and storms which so frequently prevailed there.—Dr. TYNDALL said that he had just returned from Switzerland, where, on the tops of Monte Rosa, and even of Mont Blanc, he had a full opportunity of witnessing these phenomena on a scale of grandeur truly sublime. The snow in these regions was naturally as dry as dust, and he had frequently an opportunity of witnessing columns of it whirled up to an immense height by the ascending currents of air, into regions where it was soon dissipated, or melted and dispersed into vapour. It was also to be observed that the sun's heat had a power of penetrating water and other screens, such as the clouds formed, far surpassing that possessed by heat derived from less intensely ignited or heated sources, as, for instance, from bodies heated red hot, or from vessels filled with hot water and the like. Hence, the sun's rays, though they penetrated the clouds and the earth, yet there they totally lost their former powers, and when radiated back possessed no such power as before of penetrating clouds or other screens, and thus the earth and its atmosphere became a kind of trap for the solar rays.

'On the Fixed Lines of the Solar Spectrum,' by Dr. GLADSTONE.—The author exhibited maps of the fixed lines and bands seen in the solar spectrum between those usually designated A and B, and of those which he succeeded in seeing beyond K. The light examined was that of the full sun at noon about midsummer-day. The dark lines and bands in the lavender rays coincided with those drawn by Prof. Stokes, as occurring in fluorescent phenomena, and with those of M. Béquérer, which occur in the photographic image; but the author's map contained many finer ones. It extended to M. Béquérer's N. Another map was exhibited of the dark lines and bands that make their appearance in the orange and yellow rays when the sun is near the horizon, as previously described by Sir David Brewster. The long space of air traversed by the sun's rays when setting also absorbs the more refrangible rays, but makes no difference in the angular position of the fixed lines themselves. The light of the moon exhibits the same black lines, and, when close to the horizon, it shows the additional lines in the orange in the same angular position. The light of the moon, answering in position to the violet rays of the sun, appears lavender, and even grey, like the most refracted rays of the sun. As to the origin of these lines, Dr. Gladstone had endeavoured to determine whether they were due to the absorbent power of the earth's atmosphere, as the lines in the orange appear to be. Fraunhofer's conclusion, that they do not occur in the light of the fixed stars, was thought to be open to objection; but the author's observations on the light of the stars had not led him as yet either to a positive or negative result. Artificial lights seen at a very great distance might determine the point. If these fixed lines are dependent on the sun's atmosphere, they ought to be darkest in the light coming from the edge of the sun's disc; but the author had been unable to find any difference between rays proceeding from different parts.

Sir D. BREWSTER stated, that he had exhibited at the British Association, some years ago, a map of the dark lines in the lavender rays, longer than that now exhibited, but not so minute in its delineation. He had observed in the whole spectrum 1,000 lines more than Fraunhofer had drawn, and had made large maps of different portions, but they had never been published. He described the apparatus employed by him,—a solar telescope, with a non-achromatic lens, given by the Royal Society. He believed the dark lines belonged really to the light of the sun, and were not produced by our atmosphere. He concluded by describing the remarkable absorption bands in the spectra of various coloured stars, and the luminous bands in the flame of nitrate of strontium.

'On some Optical Properties of Phosphorus,' by Dr. GLADSTONE and the Rev. T. P. DALE.

'On the Perihelia and Ascending Nodes of the Planets,' by Mr. EDWARD JOSHUA COOPER.—"It is known to many that my attention has been called to the distribution, in heliocentric longitude, of the perihelia and ascending nodes of the planets since

the year 1850. In 1851, the then results were published by me, in my Preface to 'Cometic Orbits.' Since that period I communicated the further results, arising from subsequent discoveries of asteroids, to the Royal Astronomical Society and the Royal Society. The last notice which I communicated to the Royal Society was in the last year, when the number of known planets was 51. This notice was accompanied by diagrams of their positions. At present there are 62; but no elements of the last have been yet, I believe, computed. Taking, then, 61 of these, we find that the perihelia of 42 are found in the semicircle of heliocentric longitude, between 0° and 180°, and only 19 in the other semicircle. With reference to the ascending nodes of the 60 planets, 42 are likewise found between 0° and 180°, and only 18 in the remaining semicircle. But the accompanying table will show some more remarkable results,—viz., that when there were only 4 known asteroids and 7 large planets, if we add to them Neptune, making 12 in all, the perihelia of 10 of these are found between 0° and 180°; and of the nodes of the 11, none are in the semicircle 180° to 360°. This table also exhibits these somewhat singular facts, that, adding to the first 12 those subsequently discovered in groups of 10, the number of perihelia and number of ascending nodes in each semicircle are almost exactly similar. I would also observe, that it may be seen, by the diagrams of heliocentric longitude, that the perihelia and ascending nodes are frequently grouped together in a remarkable manner. I deal now entirely with facts: causes I leave to the more learned in celestial dynamics.

#### *Including Neptune from the First.*

	L. Pa.	0° to 180°	180° to 360°
When 12 Planets there were	10	2	
22 ditto	17	5	
32 ditto	25	7	
42 ditto	30	12	
52 ditto	37	15	
61 ditto	42	19	

  

	0° to 180°	180° to 360°
When 11 Planets there were	11	0
21 ditto	18	3
31 ditto	25	6
41 ditto	30	11
51 ditto	36	15
60 ditto	42	18

'On some Properties of a Series of the Powers of the Same Number,' by Mr. J. POPE HENNESSY, of the Inner Temple.—He announced the discovery of some general laws which regulate the series of the powers of any number. For instance, in the following series of the powers of 5, the number of digits in the several recurrent vertical series may be expressed by the powers of 2:—

Number of digits recurring.

1	..	5	1st.
2	..	25	2nd.
3	..	125	3rd.
4	..	625	4th.
5	..	3125	5th.
6	..	15625	6th.
7	..	78125	7th.
8	..	390625	8th.
9	..	1953125	9th.
10	..	9765625	10th.
11	..	48828125	11th.
12	..	244140625	12th.
26	..	1220703125	13th.

—The vertical series are,

5	..
2	..
16	..
3580	..
17956240	..
3978175584230200	..

The next consists of 32 figures, and so on. He pointed out that a similar law existed for every other number; and he exhibited formulae by which the sum of any of the recurrent series may be determined. In the case of 5,  $S_n = 2(S_{n-1} + 1)$ ; the consecutive sums of the several series being 7, 16, 34, 70, 142, &c. In this way tables of the powers of numbers may be constructed to any extent whatever with very little labour. This discovery will enable certain calculations to be made with a degree of accuracy hitherto impossible. He concluded by submitting a regular demonstration of the theorem.

## SECTION B.—CHEMICAL SCIENCE.

'On Animal Ammonia, its Formation, Evolution and Office,' by the Rev. J. B. READE.—The author, after referring to the testimony of Brande and Schlossberger as to our ignorance of the cause of the coagulation of the blood, and pointing out the near approach to the solution of the problem by Raspail, proceeds to show that Dr. Richardson, in his recent work on the subject, has the undivided and justly rewarded merit of proving that coagulation proceeds solely in proportion to the evolution of ammonia. With reference to his own views on the subject of the paper, the author makes the following observations:—Ammonia, as well as fibrin, exists in the blood, and we have now sufficient, or rather cumulative proof, that the necessary solution of fibrin is caused by the agency of this volatile alkali. It is also equally apparent that a nice adjustment of the quantity of this alkali is indispensable, since an excess, operating beyond the production of fluidity, would tend to dissolve the blood corpuscles themselves, and a defect would be marked by the deposition of fibrin in the heart or arteries. But though ammonia is formed, and that in larger quantities than is required for its primary office and operation, viz., the solution of fibrin, yet the excess is with great care drawn away from the blood and used where nature requires it. As a gentle stimulant, its presence is required throughout the whole system, and accordingly it enters along with fibrin into the formation of muscular tissues. This I showed many years ago in a paper read before the Microscopical Society of London. It is true that my experiments on the presence of ammonia, *quasi* ammonia, in breath, flesh and animal tissues generally, were received with much caution, or rather, I may say, with hesitation and doubt, and even ocular demonstration failed for a time to remove foregone conclusions; but the existence of ammonia as a normal excrete of the body, is now recognized by all parties as an important and undisputed fact, and its power and office as a solvent of the fibrin of the blood is exactly determined. The primary source and formation of this alkaline solvent, or what leads to its normal development, is a physiological problem yet unsolved. Its elements are well known, but whence derived, or how, or in what part of the body, if in it at all, the chemical combination is effected, are questions which are supposed to point to additional illustrations of the limit of human investigation and reason. Yet that it is absolutely within the body that the formation of the alkaline compound takes place appears to be capable of proof. For it is quite certain, as the result of repeated experiment, that the ammonia found in the breath,—varying so much in different persons at the same time, and in the same person on different parts of the same day, and especially during the different conditions of rest, exercise and fatigue,—is not the mere return of the minute portion inspired with the air. And if the air, when charged with its uniform small quantity, fail so manifestly in supplying even the ammonia of the breath, it must of course be rejected as the source of that additional quantity which at the same time is found in every part of the body. The source and formation of this alkali, therefore, is not *ab extra*. It seems, perhaps, probable that animal ammonia is formed initially in the blood, of which the two leading ingredients, albumen and fibrin, are equally rich in nitrogen; for this element exists in albumen, according to the analysis of Gay-Lussac, in the proportion of 15·7 per cent., and of 19·9 per cent. in fibrin; while hydrogen, the other element of ammonia, is in the proportion of 7 per cent. in each. The elements of the alkali, therefore, are present, and are partly used for the formation of substances which are products of subtle chemical action. Now, in the vegetable kingdom, the combination of these elements for the formation of vegetable ammonias is a common and recognized phenomenon; and similarly,—to extend the views of Dr. Richardson,—in the exquisite balance of the chemical forces in the blood, it is arranged that the blood should be feebly alkaline from fixed alkali or alkaline salt; not sufficiently alkaline to hold fibrin in solution, but sufficiently so to leave the volatile alkali free for this purpose, when formed

in the closed chambers of the circulation. I am, therefore, less disposed than my friend Dr. Richardson to leave this point an open question, but rather to meet his inquiry, where is ammonia first formed? with the reply, in blood itself. It is with some satisfaction I can add, that Dr. Richardson himself gives his *imprimatur* to this theory. If this view, then, be anything like an accurate statement of the chemistry of nature, it confirms and harmonizes with the fact, that the formation of ammonia is a continuous process. The portion which maintains fluidity at a given moment does not remain to exercise this office for hours or days, but its evolution direct from the blood is as necessary and continuous an act as its formation. Hence it passes along with fibrin, in fact carries the fibrin, as its solvent, to every part of the body, to supply its daily waste, and having performed this office, and satisfied every other demand, the excess is evolved, in consequence of its equal diffusion, from every excretory surface, and very largely, as I have heretofore proved, from the surface of the lungs in the expired air of the breath. The evolution of ammonia from the surface of the body may be proved by an interesting experiment which happens not to have found a place in Dr. Richardson's admirable list of 400 save one. If a glass vessel, of suitable shape, having its inner surface just moistened with hydrochloric acid, be placed on any part of the body when warm with exercise, and therefore in a slight state of perspiration, evolved ammonia will be taken up by the acid; and if collected in a little distilled water, the hydrochlorate may be received and crystallized by evaporation on a slip of glass for the microscope. The same experiment may also be performed on the bodies of horses and other animals. The general experiments which prove the existence of ammonia in breath are now too well known to need description; but there is a new experiment of considerable importance, as confirming the proof of these two propositions—that there is a volatile alkali evolved in the breath, and that this alkali, having the property of maintaining the fluidity of the blood, is ammonia. Dr. Richardson has proved that in the experiment of passing the vapour of blood through blood, coagulation is suspended by the agency of a volatile principle, and he has also proved by experiment that this volatile principle is ammonia. Now, the vapour of blood is a large constituent of the vapour of breath, and the effect of passing this latter vapour through blood is precisely similar to that of the former. If a portion of blood be received in a vessel, and the expired air and vapour of breath, collected in quantity and in a suitable apparatus, be passed through it, the fluidity of the blood is maintained so long as the experiment is continued; thus furnishing a proof of the escape of a volatile agent in the breath, which agent by direct experiment upon it is proved to be ammonia. This experiment is in all respects most satisfactory. Had it failed, the whole subject would again be enveloped in its ancient mystery, and we should say with Brande that the cause of coagulation is still unexplained. True, we should know that the vapour of blood sustains fluidity, and that its volatile alkali, ammonia, sustains fluidity also; but so do the fixed alkalis, potash and soda, which are proved to be inoperative as the cause of coagulation. If then the vapour of breath, which is characterized by the same volatile agent as the vapour of blood, failed to prevent coagulation, we must unavoidably be led to the conclusion that, notwithstanding the evidence of experiment in a given direction in favour of ammonia, there is a still more subtle agency at work, even during the evolution of this alkali from newly drawn blood, which is the true and ultimate cause of coagulation. Ammonia, like potash and soda, would then be looked upon as a mere proximate agent in sustaining fluidity, and its evolution would cease to be acknowledged as the final and efficient cause of coagulation.

'On a New Method of Determining the Quantity of Carbolic Acid contained in the Air,' by Dr. E. SMITH.

'On the Combustibility and other Properties of the Rarer Metals,' by Dr. A. MATTHIESSEN.—It embraced a description of the very beautiful metals obtained from the alkalies and alkaline earths, and

was illustrated by the exhibition of a variety of these metals, as attractive as unusual. The specimens of sodium, lithium, potassium, calcium, strontium, &c., were regarded with great interest, and their combustion in an intensely brilliant white light, elicited frequent expressions of admiration. Their extreme lightness was dwelt on, lithium being lighter than any liquid, and possessing little more than half the specific gravity of water. From magnesium the combustion resulted in an ash hollow throughout.

'On the Practical Application of Aluminium,' by Mr. R. REYNOLDS.—Mr. Reynolds presented for the examination of the Section a spoon and fork manufactured by Messrs. Coulson & Co., of Sheffield. The spoon closely resembled silver in colour, having, however, perhaps a faint tinge of blue. It could be produced at about half the cost of silver. The weight was only two and a half times that of water, and one-third that of silver. The sensation of handling so light a metal was a very singular one. On the Continent, the manufacture of aluminium is pretty general, brooches, studs, &c., being made of it in consequence of its offering, with an alloy of copper, a very close resemblance to gold, in all but the property of weight. Mr. Coulson had stated that with from 5 to 10 per cent. of aluminium he could obtain any shade of gold.

In reply to Sir J. HERSCHEL, Mr. REYNOLDS said that it resisted the action of sulphur.

'On the Expansion of Metals, Alloys, and Salts,' by Mr. F. C. CALVERT.

'On Colorific Lichens,' by Mr. J. BEDFORD.—He observed that these weeds, although apparently finding their necessary home near the coast, had been discovered by Dr. Livingstone in his recent travels, five hundred miles inland, on the banks of the river Leeua. The paper was illustrated by some beautiful experiments, by a simple extemporaneous test, by which a vivid red and a very rich violet colour were produced.

Mr. CALVERT stated that the powerful and soft violet or purple colour that had just been obtained, and which was called, from its fugitive character, *ladies' despair*, had just been successfully fixed by a silk-dyer at Lyons, who, after five or six years' trial, had obtained a permanent dye. He had himself tested it, and the colour remained perfectly fast.—In answer to a gentleman in the body of the room, Mr. CALVERT said that worsteds, wool, cotton, &c., had been submitted successfully to similar tests.

'On a Method of Observation applied to the Study of some Metamorphic Rocks, and on some Molecular Changes exhibited by the Action of Acids upon them,' by M. ALPHONSO GAGES.

'On the Relation of the Atomic Weights of the Families of the Elements,' by Mr. J. MERCER.

'On an Instrument for Maintaining a Water Bath at Constant Temperature,' by Mr. G. J. WATERHOUSE.

## SECTION C.—GEOLOGY.

'Notice of Some Phenomena at the Junction of the Granite and Schistose Rocks in West Cumberland,' by Prof. PHILLIPS.—He described three orders of phenomena, all due to some form of heat action, observed by himself in the slate district of Black Comb, and on the north-west border of that mountain. In the mountain of Black Comb the black slates, much contorted, are not in a metamorphic state. Several dykes or interposed bands of granite (elvan) lie in the slates of the north-western part of Black Comb; they very slightly affect the condition of the slates. Round a considerable part of Black Comb the green slate series is metamorphic, and the series of changes is such that from unaltered slate at one end, new structures appear and augment (not very regularly), so as at the other end to complete a green or black porphyry. Agate concretions appear in some places in long pipes parallel to cleavage dip. This remarkable series of changes is traced with great precision in a bold narrow ridge of rock near Booth, one end of which almost touches the black slate, the other is met by a tongue of granite. Near the junction the granite is hornblende (syenite); it enters the metamorphic series in veins of fissure,

divege considerably in an outward direction while those of the two eyes are perfectly parallel. The eyeballs lie in the fore-part of the orbits, and according as they are more or less prominent, and more or less covered with the lids, do they appear to be larger or smaller. The eye of the infant is larger, in proportion to the size of the body, than that of the adult; but it is by no means certain that the eye of the male is larger proportionately to the size of the body than the eye of the female. By some anatomists the human eye was described as a spheroid, the diameter of which, from before to behind, is greater than in any other direction. He had measured a great number of eyes, of the human subject as well as of animals; and he found that, wherever there was a departure from the spherical figure, it was in the direction contrary to that which had been commonly stated. In some instances the difference between the two diameters was scarcely perceptible; in all, where a distinction was observed, the transverse was the greatest. He had prepared a set of tables (which were printed), containing the result of the measurement of 200 eyes of various creatures. In conclusion, Mr. Nunneley said—The measurements, I think, clearly prove that whatever part the fibres of the optic nerve play in the phenomena of vision,—and they, in all probability, only convey to the sensorium the impression received by the true retinal elements,—the greatest number of them are distributed on that part of the eyeball where there is the greatest range of vision, and that the largest expanse of retina is on that part of the ball opposite to where objects are placed, and consequently it is where the visual images of them must fall. Thus the extent of vision is always in conformity with the space of retina on that side of the optic nerve, and as the rods and cells appear always to correspond in abundance with the fibres, that side of the retina which receives the greatest number of images is most exercised, or where the range of vision is the greatest, is always the largest. That this is a fact I think a careful comparison of the position of the eyes in the head, the size of the eyeball, and the exact position of the entrance of the nerve into it, with the mode of life and habits of various creatures, will render more obvious than a casual glance would do. To mention only a few instances as illustrations:—Man, from the erect position of his body, the horizontal placing of his eyes, and his habits, has a more panoramic range than any other creature (of course in this consideration all motions of the head, neck, and body of the animal must be excluded, and those of the eyeballs alone admitted). In him the optic nerve enters the ball not far from the centre, leaving, however, a somewhat shorter space on the inner and lower parts of the retina than on the upper and outer. Now, while man enjoys a free range of vision *above* the horizontal line, there are far more occasions for him to look at objects below than above this line, and thus mere visual images are projected to the upper and outer sides of the entrance of the optic nerve oftener than to the inner and lower sides of this spot. In the pig, who sees at no great range before him, and who seeks his food with the snout almost always in the ground, whose head and eyes are consequently for the most part downwards and near to the ground, the nerve enters the ball more outwardly and much lower than it does in man. The pig wants not to see far before him, but he does require while grubbing to look behind him, from whence danger comes. So with the timid herbivorous animals; look at the entrance of the nerve in the bullock and sheep, who pass so much time with the head in a dependent position near to the ground with the eye directed upon the surface, in open plains, where danger usually comes from behind; in them the upper and inner sides of the retina are much larger than the lower and outer portions, while in the deer who live in more wooded places, where danger is also from the front, but who, like the bullock, has the head downwards in feeding, though the inner or anterior side of the retina is still larger than the posterior, it is so to a much less extent than it is in the bullock—while the upper portion still continues as proportionately large as it is in sheep and bullocks. On the contrary, in the horse, who is not so preyed upon, who

carries the head erect, and observes all around, the nerve enters the eye more nearly in the axis. In birds, with few exceptions, the upper portion of the retina is much more considerable than the lower parts, but the anterior and posterior portions vary much in different genera. Those whose locomotion is performed principally by the feet, and whose range of habitation is very small, as the common fowl and turkey, have the inner or anterior portion very considerably greater than the outer or posterior. Those birds whose range is greater and who use the wings for progression, but do not wander very far, as the grouse and partridge, have much less difference in the two portions of the retina; while in those birds whose flight is far and prolonged, as the crow, rook, swan, goose, and duck, the entrance of the nerve is very nearly in the centre of the ball. So in reptiles: in the turtle, who only requires to see immediately before and under him, the outer and upper portions of the retina are very much the larger. In the more active alligator, frog, toad, and chameleon, while the upper portion maintains its size, the outer and inner parts are more nearly equal. In those creatures whose habitation is for the most part under ground, as the shrew and the mole, the eyes are so small as to have led Magendie to assert that the mole is without the organs altogether, which is not the fact, for I have found all the essentials of an eye, even true retinal elements, optic nerve, and a well-developed choroid. Yet the organ is so minute and concealed by the skin and hair, as probably only enables the creature to discern the light, which is all that it requires, for living underground, where it seeks its prey, it obviously must depend upon the acuteness of other senses than of sight for its living. Though in the individual there is usually some proportion between the size of the eye and the body, taking different classes and genera, the size of the animal is very little guide to that of the eye, the proportions between the two being determined by other considerations than that of the bulk alone of the creature; for though, as a whole, the eye in fish bears a larger proportion to the whole body than it does in other divisions of the animal kingdom, and the eyes of birds are, as a class, much larger than those of mammalia or reptiles, yet amongst the different genera of all these classes there are very great differences, determined, apparently, by the following considerations, amongst others not so obvious. When the creature lives in feeble light, yet moves actively about, and is guided in its locomotion by the sense of sight, as in nocturnal birds and animals and fish, the eye is very large, apparently to take in a large quantity of the feeble light; on the contrary, where the creature is guided in its movements by other senses, then the eye is very small, as in the bat, the mole, the shrew, and the eel. Where vision penetrates to a long distance, and where the eye enjoys great power of overcoming the aberration of parallax, the eye is large, as in rapacious birds. When the brain and intellect are more developed, the size of the eye diminishes, and the two eyes become more parallel, as in man and the higher mammalia. Where animals are feeble, timid, have but little defensive power, and are preyed upon, the eye is usually very large, as in the hare, the conies, the whole deer tribe, and many of the other ruminants. Where the animal is not predacious, and its size and strength are such as to protect it from being preyed upon, the eyes are commonly small, as in the whale and the elephant: in the latter the eye is even smaller than it is in the horse and scarcely larger than in the eagle.

'On the Spinal Chord as a Sensational and Volitional Centre,' by Mr. G. H. LEWES.

#### SATURDAY.

#### SECTION E.—GEOGRAPHY AND ETHNOLOGY.

'A Geognostic Sketch of the Western Position of Timor,' by Dr. S. MULLER.

'On the Physical Geography of the Neighbourhood of Bombay, as affecting the Design of the Works recently erected for the Water Supply of that City,' by Mr. H. CONEYBEARE.—The water is collected in an immense reservoir, the largest in the world, about fourteen miles from Bombay. This reservoir is made by damming up a portion of

the valley of the Ghurka, and the full extent of it is 1,394 acres. As the rains fall as it were only once in a year, it is necessary to have a store of water for a twelve-month's supply, and this is now supplied. There were both engineering difficulties and advantages in the work undertaken, and these were described by the author. The 700,000 inhabitants of Bombay were now well supplied with water. There were self-closing public conduits in the streets for the supply of the poor. In these works it had been necessary to guard against offend the feelings or prejudices of the native inhabitants: hence in the distribution of the water neither leather nor animal fat could be used.

'On the Lacustrine Homes of the Ancient Swiss,' by M. TROYON.—The object of the paper was to direct attention to the remains of ancient cabins or houses built on piles on the banks and in many of the lakes of Switzerland. These dwelling-places had been erected so that they might be surrounded by water as a protection from wild beasts and the enemies of the inhabitants. Remains of flint arrowheads, stone axes, flint knives, and other rude articles were found, and were some indication of the state of civilization and knowledge to which the inhabitants had attained.

Lord ENNISKILLEN said that there were precisely similar remains—the ancient "Cranogues"—connected with many of the lakes in Ireland.

'On the General and Gradual Desiccation of the Earth and Atmosphere,' by Mr. J. S. WILSON.

#### SECTION F.—ECONOMIC SCIENCE AND STATISTICS.

'On Subjects connected with Crime and Punishment,' by Mr. W. M. TARTT.

'On Distinctions between Money and Capital,' by Mr. HAMER STANSFIELD.

'On the Laws according to which a Depreciation of the Precious Metals consequent upon an Increase of Supply takes place, considered in connexion with the Recent Gold Discoveries,' by Prof. CAIRNES.—Prof. Cairnes referred to the discussions occasioned by the recent gold discoveries as exhibiting, on the part of a large number of those who engage in them, a strange unwillingness to recognize, amongst the inevitable consequences of those events, a fall in the value of money. He said a strange unwillingness, because similar doubts were not found to exist in any corresponding case. With respect to all other commodities, it was not denied that whatever facilitated production promoted cheapness—that less would be given for objects when they could be attained with less trouble and sacrifice. It was not denied by any one pretending to economic knowledge that the enlarged production of gold now taking place had a tendency to lower its value; but it seemed to be very generally supposed that the same cause—the increased gold production—had the effect, through its influence on trade, of calling into operation so many tendencies of a contrary nature that, on the whole, the depreciation must proceed with extreme slowness—the results being dispersed over a period so great as to take from them any practical importance—and that at all events up to the present time no sensible effect upon prices had thence arisen. The existence of this opinion amongst economists was, he apprehended, to be attributed in some degree to the circumstance that so few had taken the pains to compare the actual prices of the present time with those of the period previous to the gold discoveries; but much more to the fact that the character of the new agency and the mode of its operations were not in general correctly conceived. The most general opinion with reference to the action of an increased supply of money upon its value was that a depreciation of money, so far as it arises from this cause, is uniform—that is to say, takes place in the same degree in relation to all commodities, and that therefore prices, so far as they are influenced by an increase of money, must exhibit a uniform advance; and, no such uniformity being observed in the actual movements of prices, the inference had not unnaturally been made, that the enhancement, so far as it has taken place, is not due to this cause—that it is not money which has fallen, but commodities which have risen in value. With respect to this doctrine of the uniform action of an increased supply of money upon its value in relation to com-

modities, he was quite prepared to admit its soundness, provided sufficient time were allowed for the disturbances introduced by the new additions to be corrected. He conceived, however, that these disturbances, when the augmentations took place upon the scale which we were at present witnessing, were of a kind which did not admit of speedy correction, but might continue throughout the whole period of progressive depreciation,—a period which, if he might venture to express an opinion on this subject, would probably extend over some thirty or forty years. The mode in which an increased production of gold operated in depreciating its value, and thus raising general prices, appeared to him to be twofold, and to take place, first, directly, through the medium of an enlarged money demand; and secondly, indirectly, through a contraction of supply. Prof. Cairnes then stated in detail the considerations from which he arrived at the following general conclusions:—First, that the commodities, the price of which may first be expected to rise under the influence of the new money, are those which fall most extensively within the consumption of the productive classes, but more particularly within the consumption of the labouring and artisan section of these. Secondly, that of such commodities, that portion which consists of finished manufactures, though their price may in the first instance be rapidly raised, cannot continue long in advance of the general level, owing to the facilities available for rapidly extending the supply; whereas, should the production, from over-estimation of the increasing requirements, be once carried to excess, their price, in consequence of the difficulty of contracting the supply, may be kept for some considerable time below the general level. Thirdly, that such raw products as fall within the consumption of the classes indicated, not being susceptible of the same rapid extension as manufactures, may continue for some time in advance of the general movement, and that among raw products the effects will be more marked in those derived from the animal than in those derived from the vegetable kingdom. And, fourthly, that the commodities last to feel the effects of the new money, and which may be expected to rise most slowly under its influence, are those articles of finished manufacture which do not happen to fall within the range of the new expenditure; such articles being affected only by its indirect action—that is to say, through its action upon wages—and this action being in their case obstructed by the impediments to the contraction of supply. Up to this point, Prof. Cairnes said, he found his conclusions corroborated by the independent investigations of an eminent French economist, M. Levasseur. There was, however, another principle which it appeared to him must exercise a powerful influence on the course of the movement, namely, that efficacy which resides in the currency of each country into which any portion of the new money may be received for determining the effect of this infusion on the range of local prices, using the words "local prices" with reference to commodities in the locality in which they are produced, not to that in which they are sold. According to this principle, the advance followed the locality in which the commodity was produced. Thus the rise in price had been most rapid in commodities produced in the gold countries, having in these at one bound reached its utmost limit—that, namely, which is set by the cost of producing gold. After the commodities produced in the gold regions, the advance, he conceived, would proceed most rapidly in the productions of England and the United States; after these, at no great interval, in the productions of the Continent of Europe; while the commodities last to feel the effects of the new money, and which would advance most slowly under its influence, were the productions of India and China, and, he might add, of tropical countries generally, so far as their economic conditions corresponded with those of these countries. Prof. Cairnes submitted to the Section some statistical tables which he had drawn up, with a view to compare the conclusions at which he had arrived as to a depreciation of the precious metals under the action of an increased supply, with the actual progress of prices up to the present time. He remarked that, considering the propitiousness of the seasons,

the action of free trade, the absence of war, the contraction of credit, and the general tendencies to a reduction of cost proceeding from the progress of knowledge, were there no other cause in operation, we should have reason to look for a very considerable fall of prices at the present time, as compared with, say eight or ten years ago. Prices, however, had very decidedly risen, and the advance had, moreover, proceeded in conformity with the principles which he had in his paper endeavoured to establish. This was his ground for asserting that the depreciation of our standard money was already, under the action of new gold, an accomplished fact.

"On the Financial Prospects of British Railways," by Mr. S. BROWN.—Mr. Brown gave a summary of the leading facts showing the extension and present position of the railway system of the country. In doing so, he confined himself principally to the reports presented by Capt. Galton to the Board of Trade, which reports bring down the information to the end of 1856. He also quoted from a Parliamentary document which has recently appeared, showing that the total amount of capital and loans for railways in the United Kingdom, authorized by Acts of Parliament previous to the 31st of December, 1857, was 387,051,735<sup>l.</sup>, of which 7,732,496<sup>l.</sup> was authorized to be raised by shares and 2,614,316<sup>l.</sup> by loan last year alone. Previous to the year 1857, 281,114,152<sup>l.</sup> was to be raised by shares and 96,458,773<sup>l.</sup> by loans. On the 31st of December last:—

	Capital raised.	Dividend or Interest in 1857.	Per Cent.
Ordinary share .....	£175,624,394	6,391,746	3·579
Preference share .....	58,126,627	2,706,157	4·655
Loans .....	78,406,237	3,240,683	4·133
Total.....	£315,157,258	12,338,586	3·915

The companies then retained power to raise 72,194,678<sup>l.</sup> by existing shares, by new shares, and by loans. 283,957,225<sup>l.</sup> was the amount stated to be expended in the construction of railway works. The length of line open for traffic on the 31st of December last was 9,447 miles (2,681 miles single and 6,356 double lines); 993 miles of railroad were being constructed at the end of the year, and 3,554 miles of line were authorized, but not then commenced. The total length of lines for which companies had obtained powers prior to the 31st of December, 1857, was stated at 13,562. In reference to the important consideration of the relative amount of loans, preference and ordinary share capital, Mr. Brown remarked that it was evident that whatever the state of the money market the lowest rate of interest for the time being would always be upon those investments which afforded the largest margin for the certain payment of the interest and the repayment of the principal at the periods agreed on. Of 308,775,894<sup>l.</sup>, which was the total amount of money raised up to the end of 1856 for the construction of railways, 77,359,419<sup>l.</sup>, or 25 per cent., formed, in the shape of loans, a first charge on the profits of the companies. At the end of 1857, 78,406,237<sup>l.</sup> out of 315,157,260<sup>l.</sup>, or 24·88 per cent., was similarly advanced. The total profits from all railways in 1856 appeared to have been 12,277,712<sup>l.</sup>, and the interest upon debentures and loans 3,607,072<sup>l.</sup>; thus leaving a margin of 8,670,640<sup>l.</sup>, or 70·62 per cent. of net profits, to secure the punctual payment of this interest. Under such circumstances, what could be the cause that the average rate of interest on loans so secured should be as high as 4·66 per cent. in 1856, and that in the most favourable year, 1853, it never fell below an average of 4·14 per cent.? What, again, could be the cause that the rate of interest on these securities had gone on increasing in successive years till 1856, though the rate of interest on ordinary share capital had scarcely at all diminished? In 1857, it was true the rate of interest on this class of securities seemed considerably less, but it was still 4·133 per cent., whilst the rate of dividend on ordinary share capital had increased to 3·579 per cent. Looking at the very large surplus which remained, and the ample security thereby afforded for punctual payment of the interest, there seemed no reason to doubt that such loans should be considered nearly equal to Government securities. A suggestion had been recently made that all such bonds and obligations

should be made payable to the bearer, and transmissible from hand to hand without expense or trouble. The suggestion was well worthy of notice, and the effect would be, no doubt, to diminish the rate of interest at which such advances were made, and ultimately this class of loans would probably not differ much in value, nor fluctuate much more in market price than the public funds. A difference of half per cent. interest on the existing loans of 78,000,000<sup>l.</sup> would amount to 390,000<sup>l.</sup> per annum, —no mean advantage to the ordinary shareholders. Passing to the question of the preference shares, Mr. Brown pointed out that in 1857, if there had been no preference shareholders, but all had shared alike, the average dividend would have been 3·843 per cent. The truth was, that the raising of money, either by debentures or preference shares, was a false system, and always acted prejudicially to the ordinary shareholders, unless their annual dividends amounted to, at least, the same rate per cent. on their capital as they had to give on debentures or preference shares. After remarking upon questions of the reduction of the working expenses of railways, the increase of traffic receipts (which, notwithstanding periods of commercial depression, had made steady progress for several years), Mr. Brown said, in conclusion, that some of the evils from which railway shareholders were now suffering, though recognized, could not be remedied. Mr. Stephenson computed that no less than 14,000,000<sup>l.</sup> had been spent in law proceedings. Yet, for all this, if the loan, preference and ordinary share capital were considered as one interest, the results, though falling far short of the expectations entertained, gave no occasion to despair of the future. A net profit of 12,338,586<sup>l.</sup> in 1857 on a capital paid up of 315,157,258<sup>l.</sup> (share and loan) yielded 3·915 per cent., and was a fair vantage ground for further progress. With a diminution in the rate of interest when the debenture and preference share capital was better understood, under improved management; with a revision and a reduction in some of the various sources of expenditure; with constantly augmenting traffic receipts; with a cessation of the fatal and senseless competition which had so long prevailed; with a tribunal for arbitration which would save both legal expenses and the reckless opposition of the companies amongst each other; with more regard to the convenience of the public in the arrangement of the trains; with more attention to the comfort of third-class passengers; and with some system to check the construction of unnecessary lines, and to develop the commerce of districts by officials thoroughly versed in the resources they afforded; there could be no reason for railway shareholders to give way to despondency, but rather to look with pride and satisfaction on a branch of commercial enterprise, the capital embarked in which fell little short of 400,000,000<sup>l.</sup> sterling, and of which the net profits on the amount paid up exceeded last year half the interest upon the permanent National Debt.

Mr. NEWMARCH expressed an opinion that the author of the paper was not far from the truth when he said that third-class passengers were the principal source upon which railway companies must depend for their profits. He therefore thought that it would be wise in railway directors to provide better accommodation for that class of passengers.

"On the Sewing Machine in Glasgow, and its Effects on Production, Prices, and Wages," by Mr. J. STRANG.

"On the Results of Free Trade," by Mr. H. WALKER.

#### FRIDAY.

##### SECTION G.—MECHANICAL SCIENCE.

"On the Recent Improvements in Railway Signals—Electro-Galvanic and Mechanical," by Mr. C. F. WHITWORTH.

"Report of the Committee on Shipping," by Mr. ATHERTON.

"On Expanding Pulleys," by Mr. COMB.

"Some Modern Appliances for raising Water, with Illustrations," by Mr. W. E. CARRETT.—They were combinations of engine and pump, in direct action, with power and work associated harmoniously together.

'Report of the Committee on Patent Laws,' by Mr. T. WEBSTER.—It was a review of the history of the movement for amending the Patent Laws. The objects considered to be requisite for the efficient protection of the inventor, the simplification of Patent Laws, and kindred matters, not having been attained, the Committee proposed that the subject should be further considered at the present meeting of the Association. The publications were already sent to nearly all the principal towns in England and America, and had had the result, in several instances, of promoting the institution of free libraries and reading-rooms. The amount paid by patentees during the last year was upwards of £3,000.; and after the commencement of the payment of 100% at the expiration of the seventh year, the amount levied on inventors will not be less than £100,000. per annum,—a sum which, as levied on inventions and inventors, may reasonably be expected to be expended on objects in which inventors have interest. In reference to this branch of the subject the following questions would appear to arise for consideration:—1st. Should the present scale of payments be retained or reduced, so as to leave no great surplus beyond what may be necessary for the official assignees? 2nd. If the present scale be maintained, how should the surplus be appropriated? It appears that the second payment of 50% before the end of the third year is not made in respect of more than about one-fourth of the whole number of patents; so that payments being made on about 500 out of 2,000 patents, 1,500 are permitted to lapse, the cost of which, in money, to the patentees, cannot be taken at less than £75,000., or a loss which cannot be estimated at less than £150,000. per annum. Could not something be done with this money in the way of obtaining better information, and for the improved education of the people?

Mr. ROBERTS said, he had advocated cheap patents for years, and he thought no more fees ought to be taken than would pay office expenses. No patent paid its cost, on the average, under seven years.—Mr. EDISON pointed out the shameful neglect of these patent specifications in Leeds, and expressed a hope that a room would now be found for their public exhibition in the Town Hall, —and Mr. H. RICHARDSON thought that new patents were not sufficiently advertised, and recommended that the *Gazette*, and both London and provincial papers, should be used to a greater extent than at present.—Mr. HEYWOOD, Prof. CALVERT (Manchester), Lord WROTHESLEY, and Mr. WEATHERHEAD (America), also spoke.—Sir P. FAIRBAIRN, in reply to Mr. Edison, stated that, with respect to the specifications now in the Town Clerk's Office, the Corporation could not help themselves prior to the erection of the Town Hall. Now, however, a good room would be found for them in that building; and they would be so arranged and exhibited as to be easy of access to the people of Leeds. Referring to the subject of the Report, he thought it would be an improvement if we introduced the system now established in France. By this plan, any man could go to the patent-office and take out his patent for about 100 francs. Of course, the inventor in that country must run the risk as to whether his patent is a new or old one.—The PRESIDENT summed up the discussion. He had taken an interest in patent reform for some years; and his object, which was also the object of other parties who had moved in the matter, was to give the working man an opportunity of coming forward with his invention. The plan of periodical payments he considered to be a great boon. He should like to see the business more economical; and he also contended that the 100,000. surplus to which reference had been made should not exist as a tax upon the inventive talent of the public. That surplus should either be devoted to the reduction of the price of patents or else to the relief of unsuccessful inventors.

#### FINE ARTS

**FINE-ART GOSSIP.**—We have received a clever and effective lithograph of the Prince of Wales, the hope of England, lithographed by Mr. Lane, and published by Messrs. Hanhart & Mitchell, from a

photograph of Mr. Lake Price's. The brave young stripling is in royal Highland dress, kilt and sporran complete, as he the Prince of Scotland has a right to be, and stands before appropriate Celtic mountains, dim and blue. The clouds break, with kind consideration for the artist, on the left hand of the picture to balance the dark slab of rock on which he sets his commanding foot to the right. There is still, as sailors say of the young middies, "a little mother's milk left in his cheeks." There is hope of an ideal future in his eye,—but to leave Fitzball and the heroes—he stands not with Goliath's head in his firm young hand, but with a brace of yellow grey grouse, ruffed and bloody, the spoil of the gun he holds in his right. His eyebrows are level, unvivacious and unimaginative, his mouth somewhat sad and depressed, but his eye is bright, and his cheeks bright with the purple light of youth. The woman is still in his face. The rough side of life he has yet to meet, for even princesses meet it. As a lithograph this is a sharp and good one, and the likeness is excellent. It will be an autumn flower for the print-shop windows.

A Correspondent writes—"How few controversies would arise if people would only refrain from writing or speaking till they got cool, remembering Aurelian's plan of repeating the Roman alphabet to himself before he replied to anybody with whom he was angry. If men would only abstain from firing till the smoke of the quarrel had blown away, how much better it would be. What an angry hiss there was in all the London studio hive because Sir Edwin Landseer had defrauded the sculptors by receiving so many thousand for modelling the lions for the base of the Nelson Pillar. How could a painter work in clay? He would make imaginary sketches, send them to a chiselling-mason, and sack the Government money. Marry come up. Now, I happen to know the real fact is,—and it ends the fuss and noise,—that Sir Edwin Landseer is an experienced modeller, and therefore if he cannot chisel he can design for chisellers, and that he is conversant with lions and has frequently painted them, I believe, either from life, or from careful sketches. W. T."

Sir Christopher Wren plumbed the spire of Salisbury Cathedral in 1668. It was repeated by Mr. Naish in 1680,—by Mr. Thomas Naish in 1739,—and by the Clerk of the Works on the 30th of September last, the 600th anniversary of the dedication of the Cathedral. No declination of the spire is perceptible since the time of Sir Christopher.

The Sultan having opened a competition for a design for a carriage, to establishments in Brussels, Paris, and London, the *Indépendance* of the first-named city is delighted to announce that the prize has been won and the carriage built by a Belgian house. As the name of the partners in the house is Jones (brothers) it may be concluded, probably, that the honour has been carried off by Englishmen.

Among the restorations and renovations going on in and about Paris is to be especially reckoned the restoration of the "marvellous bed-chamber" of Marie de Medicis, in the Luxembourg. The walls are really covered with pictures by Rubens, Philip of Champagne, Raphael, and other mighty masters. The superb wood-carving of the frames, panelling, &c., in this room have been found to be worm-eaten, and the restoration is spoken of as a work of great nicely.

The four *rillieri* in the Imperial Hall of the Cathedral of Speyer having been fixed, the erection of the statues of the Emperors has been commenced last week. The four statues that have been placed are those of Conrad the Second, Rudolf von Habsburg, Adolf von Nassau, and Albrecht von Oesterreich. The first has been executed by Herr Dietrich; the last three are the work of Prof. Fernkorn, of Vienna. The statues, of white freestone, are said to be masterpieces, and imposing by their conception as well as by their execution. The *rillieri*, of the same stone, are by a younger artist, Herr Prez. The statues will follow each other in the same succession in which the Emperors were buried in the Cathedral. Our contemporary, the *Continental Review*,—a

paper devoting itself with honest ability to the creation in this country of a wiser public opinion on foreign topics,—contains some scraps of gossip on Art and Artists at Florence, which we transfer to our columns, leaving to our contemporaries all the responsibility as to the view expressed:—"Our annual Exhibition of Paintings and Statuary was opened on the 21st inst. I shall not say much on the subject; and I should prefer saying nothing at all. The Exhibition is unworthy of our city: it would be objectionable even in a small provincial town. Excepting an historical picture, a couple of portraits, and a batch of landscapes, which are just tolerable, I may say of all the rest that it is trivial, and not worth looking at. And yet Florence boasts of her legion of artists. What, you will ask, is the reason why our painters refuse to exhibit their pictures in the saloons of the Academy? In the first instance, the Government and the Academy do not seem to care for the Exhibition; and the artists, who have no hope whatever of selling their works under the auspices of the Academy, prefer exhibiting them in the saloons of the *Società Promotrice*, which is formed on the model of similar associations in England, France, and Germany. Instead of criticizing and abusing the few paintings which barely cover the nakedness of our academical saloons, I prefer penning a few notes on some of the works which are not in the Exhibition, but which may be seen in the studios of our principal artists—painters and sculptors. Signor Dupré has modelled a Sappho in the last moments of her most wretched life. The poetess is seated on the steep of Leucadia, with drooping head, and immersed in profound meditation. This statue is to form part of Signor Gatti's Exhibition. Let me also call attention to a monument which Signor Fantachiotti is executing for the Signora Spence, wife to an English artist. This monument is to be taken to England. It represents the lady gently asleep on the cover of the tomb, surrounded by angels. The spectator is struck with the life-like appearance of the marble. 'Eve,' by the same artist, is quite as remarkable a production. The mother of all mankind is seated next to the trunk of a tree, round which the snake drags its slimy folds. She has just plucked the forbidden fruit, but pauses before eating it. Another 'Eve'—that of Signor Cambi—is treated in a different manner. Signor Cambi presents us, not with one figure only, but with a group, which is a far more difficult undertaking. Eve reclines on a couch of skins, holding Abel in her arms, who plays with the tresses of her long flowing hair. On her other side is the infant Cain, jealous of the caresses which fall to his brother's share: he struggles, and would disengage himself from his mother's hold. The idea is beautiful and new; it embodies the prologue to the Scriptural tragedy."

#### MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

**M. JULLIEN'S CONCERTS.—ROYAL LYCEUM THEATRE.**—M. JULLIEN's Twentieth and LAST ANNUAL SERIES OF CONCERTS will commence on the 1st of NOVEMBER, continue for One Month, and will be given as M. JULLIEN's Fete-Musique and "Concerts d'Adieu," before his departure for the Universal Music Festival, at the City of the Capital of Europe, America, Australia, the Colonies, and civilized towns of Asia and Africa, accompanied by the élite of his orchestra and other artists, "savants, hommes de lettres," being the nucleus of a Society already formed, under the title of "L'Harmonie Universelle," instituted not only to popularize the divine and civilizing art of Music, but to promote, through Harmony's powerful eloquence, a noble and philanthropic cause. The full Prospectus will shortly be published.—All communications to be addressed to M. JULLIEN, 214, Regent Street, W.

**MRS. HOWARD PAUL'S Comic and Musical "PATCH-WORK" EVERY NIGHT (Saturdays included), at Eight, at the EGYPTIAN HALL.**—Mrs. Howard Paul will repeat her wonderful imitation of Mrs. Sims Reeves in "Patchwork," and will be assisted by Mr. Paul, and Miss Fry, an "old young lady."—Stalls, 2s; Area, 2s; Gallery, 2s. A Morning Performance on Saturdays at Three.

**OLYMPIC.**—"The Red Vial" seems to have been written for the sake of introducing the Dead House at Frankfort, to which every corpse is brought before burial, for the purpose of testing the fact of death, and saving those who may happen to be only in a trance. A Jew merchant of Frankfort is therefore placed in perilous circumstances, that lead to "a suspension of the functions of life," and the body is accordingly deposited in the vaults of the Dead House to await the trial, where of

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—An English version of M. von Flotow's 'Martha' was produced on Monday at Drury Lane. Two such sunny heroines—English Pynes, and of the best home growth, to use a flower and fruit of speech highly esteemed in the neighbourhood of Covent Garden,—would have secured tears, sympathy and laughter for a play far more dangerously novel than 'Martha.' With no end of dazzling dresses,—with unlimited supplies of white teeth, short petticoats and twinkling feet, the production had a success. The favour bestowed on it was like that accorded to a revival. Everybody seemed glad to meet once more with the good old scenes, jokes, characters and situations at which they had held their sides or clapped their hands time-out-of-mind. Who could help being pleased when the scene that holds a mirror up to nature shows a lady of high

degree dressing as a peasant, rattling off into a fair, and engaging herself as servant to a farmer, just for fun? Who that has watched the struggles of human nature on the stage—and has detected its mysterious laws—can help an early flutter of delight as his instinct whispers him that the farmer will certainly fall in love with his pretty maid—that the lady will be awkward and scornful—that there will be escapes through windows or trap-doors, followed by an ineffectual search, dragging the dismay down into despair, and furnishing emotions for a third and fourth act—that the farmer will warble his misery to the bushes and nightingales—that he will turn out to be a prince in disguise,—that the lady will sue in turn and be rejected, on that noble principle which rules in opera-land from generation to generation, that when the gentleman will the lady will not, and when the gentleman will not the lady will,—and that all will end with a peal of bells, a dance of peasant girls in blue and scarlet skirts, of a bewitching shortness, and a distribution of wedding-cake to the audience? As the scene moves on, the spectator feels that he was not at fault. He foresaw it all. He knew the peasant girl would re-appear in gorgeous attire. He was aware what a surprise was coming on the poor farmer. He feels quite in the confidence of the author, and is delighted to find that he works out his fable exactly on his own idea. Happy author, to have so intelligent an auditor! Then, again, what lover of the picturesque can withhold his hand when he sees before him Richmond Park filled with Sicilian, or Tyrolese, or Neapolitan lads and lasses (N.B. no one can be certain of his natural history in opera-land, as the distribution of species takes place under laws not yet laid down by Prof. Owen)—at all events with boys in blue and drab and girls in blue and pink, all dancing like mad, to whom enter Surrey farmers, dressed in the uniform of the Kaiser's jagars, and who drink and praise their beer like veritable Münchener. Equally tempting is the appearance of a Surrey farm, built on the model of a Bohemian schloss, and furnished with chairs and the like from the most authentic Wardour Street stores. Every one is pleased to see English life thus faithfully put on the boards. Besides all this the heroes ride on real horses and carry off the laughing heroines on real pillion. My Lady appears in true hunting costume, a Diana with her lance and the amplest Paris crinoline. Then you have a gracious and smiling queen—who, if she be only a stage queen, rides, at least, a live horse. A most excellent play—that neither tries your temper while you listen, nor mingles unpleasantly afterwards with the cold chicken. To say that Miss Pyne was *Martha*, Miss Susan Pyne *Nancy*, and Mr. Harrison *Lionel*, is the same thing as saying that these three parts were admirably undertaken, and carried through with a joyousness and brilliance scarcely to have been expected from the music in their hands. All these artists sang and played their best,—the scene moved briskly,—and the public showered on them its warm applause. We devote our record mainly to the play as a play. We cannot say very much for the English version of '*Martha*'; the lines were sometimes as unsuited to musical enunciation as they were for simple reading. On former occasions we have said all that is necessary about the music of M. Flotow. It is fair, however, to the composer to add that the public seem to like it better than the critics. The public pay. If the friends of M. von Flotow are of that sensible set which prefers pudding to praise, they ought to be well pleased with the reception of '*Martha*' in London. It is announced for repetition at Drury Lane three times a week.

Mr. Charles Mathews, with his American bride, appeared at the Haymarket on Monday in the comedy of 'London Assurance.' He was himself well received in the character of *Dazzle*; and the lady, who is pretty but *petite*, acquitted herself respectably as *Lady Gay Spanker*. The house was full.

Astley's—our boys and girls of all ages will hear with pleasure—opened on Monday in new splendour. No tragedy, no comedy, no opera like a

good ring, a witty clown, a cloud of whips and grooms, a sparkling horse, and a lovely girl in pink and white, flashing through hoops—say sagacious critics of seven. Critics, indeed, of seventeen-and-thirty are very much of the same mind. Horses never bore you, for they never rant, moute, or tear a passion to rags. All they pretend to be are—brisk, beautiful things, which do their sputterings with a natural gentleness that might shame their biped brothers, were the latter capable of shame. Astley's horses seem especially endowed with sense, docility, and nerve. What a clatter in the Battle of the Covenanters!—what a tenderness in the bearers of beauty!—what a frolicsomeness in the carriers of the comic men and Merry Andrew! The acting too was good of its picturesquesque and highly-coloured kind. The opening was very successful, with a promise of yet greater successes to come.

A successful burlesque, entitled 'The Maid and the Magpie; or, the Fatal Spoon,' was produced on Monday at the Strand Theatre. It is operatic and melo-dramatic, founded on the once celebrated drama after which it is named.

The management of the Royal Grecian Theatre have lost no time in vindicating a right to the title bestowed by the Lord Chamberlain on this establishment. A new piece, with splendid scenery and gorgeous dresses, was produced on Monday. It is called, 'A Life's Revenge; or, Two Lovers for One Heart.' It has been adapted from the French to the English stage by Mr. W. Suter. The piece is in three acts, and contains startling melo-dramatic incidents very skilfully combined. The action is laid in the reign of Louis the Sixteenth, whose Minister of Finance, *M. Fournichet* (Mr. Mead), has incurred obligations to two ladies, and is called upon by the *Marquis de St. Geoffrey* (Mr. Sinclair) to give him satisfaction on account of his sister. The Marquis is thrice defeated, and then vows a life-long revenge. Fournichet falling into disgrace, and being imprisoned, the Marquis solicits the governorship of the prison, and subjects his victim to every possible inconvenience. On his endeavouring to escape, and the gaoler being accidentally killed in the attempt, the malignant Governor reports him dead, and plunges the unhappy man into the deepest cell in the dungeon. By the intervention of his other mistress, *Eloise de Montfort* (Miss Coveney), the King becomes acquainted with the facts, and restores him to liberty. The baffled Marquis then in rage assails him on the spot, but receives his own death-blow in the desperate struggle. The parts are remarkably well acted.

## MISCELLANEA

*Dulwich College.*—Allow me to call your attention to the circumstance that the Trustees of Dulwich College now charge for admission on Thursdays and Fridays to all persons visiting the "Bourgeois Collection" of pictures at Dulwich. Although the charge is but sixpence, you will probably agree with one of your constant readers that it is a step in the wrong direction.—I am, &c.,  
John [unclear]

TOHS. MEDWIN.

*The Dingo.*—Some discoveries lately made by Mr. Selwyn, the Government geologist, in exploring a cave near Mount Macedon, throw much light on the disputed question of the introduction of the wild dog to Australia. Prof. M'Coy has stated that there is little doubt that the animal is indigenous; and a paragraph in a Melbourne publication, edited by W. H. Archer, Esq., the Assistant Registrar-General relates, on the authority of Mr. Smyth, that the skeleton of a dingo was discovered near Warmambrol, underneath a bed of volcanic ash. The skeleton was found by C. Campbell, Esq., an engineer who was conducting some excavations in that neighbourhood. The discovery of such a skeleton is of interest, establishing, as it does, the truth of Prof. M'Coy's conjecture, which was founded on paleontological data.

**TO CORRESPONDENTS.**—C. S. G.—F. T.—A. W.—D. G. N.—*Bos Locutus Est*—E. D. H.—M. H.—J. L. W.—J. G. R.—T. J.—*Beta*—R. D.—G. M.—D. D.—W. H.—E. S.—T. G.—received.

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